The Nation.

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The Week.

THE New York Republican State convention last week put the word gold in its platform, and thus declared, without qualification or subterfuge, what it meant by the phrase sound money. A declaration so far in advance of the usual platitudes of party conventions deserves to be quoted in full:

"The agitation for the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1 seriously disturbs all industrial interests, and calls for a clear statement of the Republican party's attitude upon this question, to the end that the trade of this country, at home and abroad, may again be placed upon a sound and stable foundation. We recognize in the movement for the free coinage of silver an attempt to degrade the long-established standard of our monetary system, and hence a blow to public and private credit, at once costly to the national Government and harmful to our domestic and foreign commerce. Until there is a prospect of international agreement as to silver coinage, and while gold remains the standard of the United States and of the civilized world, the Republican party of New York declares itself in favor of the firm and honorable maintenance of that standard."

A more decided expression of sound and wholesome doctrine on the money question it would he hard to frame. It is to be welcomed all the more since it stands in such notable contrast to the McKinley deliverance, adopted by the Ohio convention two weeks ago, in favor of "gold, silver, and paper with which to measure our exchange," and demanding the use of both gold and silver as standard money either by international agreement or "under such restrictions and such provisions, to be determined by *legislation*, as will secure the maintenance of the parities of values of the two metals, so that the purchasing and debt-paying power of the dollar, whether of silver, gold, or paper, shall be at all times equal." Mr. Morton could hardly have gone into the convention as a candidate on any other platform, nor could his party have expected to carry this State on any other. No matter who is nominated at St. Louis, the business men of New York are a unit in demanding that sound money be defined and described so that no room shall be left for two interpretations of it.

The financial plank of the Massachusetts Republican platform follows closely upon the lines of that of the New York Republicans, and is sound and strong. It is not afraid to say gold when gold is meant, and, in addition to declaring entire opposition to the "free and unlimited coinage of silver," opposes "any change in the existing gold standard except by international agreement," and demands that "every promise must be rigidly kept, and every obligation redeemable in coin must be paid in gold." This declaration puts the Republicans of Massachusetts squarely upon the ground which Congress has refused repeatedly to take, for it says that by "coin" we mean "gold." If Congress had made this declaration before our issues of bonds, the country would have been several million dollars better off, so far as interest on the bonds is concerned, and many hundred millions better off in the way of improved business and industry. If the Republican conventions in other Eastern and Middle States will follow the lead of New York and Massachusetts on this question, their party will be placed in a better position before the country at the opening of the Presidential campaign than it has occupied for years. It may be that even Speaker Reed will be encouraged to say something more definite on the subject than that the "day cometh with the Republican morning soon to dawn." As matters stand now, there is a ludicrous discrepancy between the frank and manly financial declaration of the Massachusetts platform and his comic-opera treatment of the same subject.

Sound as the platform is on the currency question, allowing Senator Lodge to draw it up and sit on it gives it a touch of drollery. There has been no more insidious friend of the silver movement than Lodge himself. He has not missed a single opportunity in the Senate to show his sympathy with it. Two years ago he introduced in the Senate a resolution to put discriminating duties on English goods, to punish England for not abandoning her gold standard, which the sorry wag now exalts in Massachusetts. Still later he wrote to Moreton Frewen that the cause of the American hatred of England, as revealed in his Jingo enterprise, was her treatment of silver—that is, her refusal to aid us in giving up the gold standard. There is no more melancholy sign in politics to-day than that such a man can make this open parade of his hypocrisy, and yet retain his influence undiminished in a party like the Republican party in a State like Massachusetts. He "steered" the late convention in everything.

The *Manufacturer* of Philadelphia furnishes an explanation of the recent meeting at Washington between certain Republican Senators from the silver-mining States and certain Pennsylvania manufacturers. It denies, in the first place, that the initial steps for the meeting were taken in Philadelphia. The movement began in some other place (Pottsville, perhaps). The Philadelphia men were invited by the Senators to come to Washington for consultation and an exchange of views. When they came together the Senators informed them that the Dingley bill could not pass, nor could any other tariff bill pass now or in the next Congress, unless something were done at the same time for silver. "This statement," it says, "was challenged, and a demand was made for proof that the silver-men will have power to defeat tariff legislation." The Senators said that "however much they might desire to sustain a tariff bill, the sentiment of their constituents was too violently opposed to such a course, unless silver remonetization should be at the same time supported, to permit them to advocate protection alone." The manufacturers expressed regret, "and in some instances indignation," that silver and the tariff had been so coupled together, and they separated not at all convinced that they would not be able to carry their measures without silver legislation, "but probably with some anxiety to learn positively if such is the case."

That the Manufacturers' Club of Philadelphia is not in favor of the silver standard, or of bimetallism in any form, was made plain at its meeting on Monday. The official organ of the club, for two or three years past, has been advocating legislation in favor of silver in one way or another, and its editor has been delivering lectures in various parts of the country in favor of bimetallism of one sort or another. In short, the influence of the club has run in the same direction as the speeches of Stewart, Teller, Bland, and Bryan, and has probably done more mischief than those because it has been addressed to a Republican audience in the Eastern States. A full meeting of the club was held on Monday, at which the subject was well thrashed out, and resolutions were adopted declaring "that the question of bimetallism can be permanently settled only through an international agreement, and that the Manufacturers' Club declares its unalterable opposition to the free coinage of silver by the United States alone, firmly believing that such a policy will result in disaster at home and dishonor abroad, and would only operate to place this country upon the basis of silver monometallism." Various attempts made by a small band of silver-men to modify the resolutions were voted down. Even a recommendation that Congress take steps for another international conference was rejected.

The McKinley boom is in great force in the newspapers, and the editor who has not some figures of his own upon it is decidedly unenterprising. Less than one-half the convention has been chosen, the total of delegates elected up to Saturday evening being 388, while the full convention will contain 909. The *Tribune*, which does its claiming on Sundays for some inscrutable reason, gives McKinley 204.

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Gen. Grosvenor, the Washington manager of the McKinley boom, says this is too small a number, and publishes a table by States giving the Major 255 delegates. In order to do this, Gen. Grosvenor includes thirty-four delegates not yet chosen, but he says that these "are pretty sure to be for McKinley, and might as well be counted now." Why not? If you are going into the "claiming" business, why not throw your whole soul into it? The *Herald* makes the *Tribune* "look sick" by publishing telegraphic estimates from various parts of the country which show that McKinley will have 393 votes on the first ballot, or only sixty-two short of enough to nominate. This is good claiming, but the *World* beat it two weeks ago by a similar convincing calculation which gave him 564 votes on the first ballot, nominating him with nine votes to spare. The Philadelphia *Press*, which is not a McKinley paper, gives him only 201 of the delegates thus far elected. Per contra, the *Tribune* has held an election in New Jersey, and has discovered such a spontaneous boom for McKinley there that it seems safe to give him that State's electoral vote now, for, whether he be nominated or not, New Jersey is bound to vote for him.

Joe Manley continues to put forth figures on this subject, and, in his latest calculation, makes a striking comparison between McKinley to-day and Blaine in 1876:

> "The situation is precisely as it was twenty years ago. You will remember that three months before the convention met at Cincinnati, we were confident of Mr. Blaine's nomination. He stood then as the apostle of protection, but he had opposed to his nomination Senator Conkling of New York, Senator Morton of Indiana, Secretary Bristow of Kentucky, Gov. Hayes of Ohio, and Gov. Hartranft of Pennsylvania. We felt so sure of Mr. Blaine's nomination that we regarded it as settled, and yet he was defeated in the convention, and the Maine man went down before the Ohio Governor."

Another feature of the deadly parallel which Mr. Manley does not mention is the uproarious support of the *Tribune*. Mr. Blaine had that in 1876, as McKinley has it now, and it was given in the same way then as now, with calculations, and tables of delegates, and whoops and claims; but it was of no avail when the balloting began, mainly because it was begun too early and maintained with too much zeal. Of course Mr. Blaine's reputation had something to do with his failure, but the chilling influence of that could scarcely have been more disastrous than McKinley's unfortunate career as a business man will be now. For the first time in the history of the country a man who has failed in business and has had his debts paid for him, is proposed as a Presidential nominee by the very men who have paid his debts, and who would be the direct beneficiaries of the economic policy which would be put into operation were he to be elected. There are the elements of as great a political scandal in this situation as there was in Blaine's public record.

The Davis resolutions are now surely dead, because Davis himself is dead. He lost his own State on Tuesday week, and telegraphed that he would "loyally respect the wishes" of the people of Minnesota and quit trying for the Presidency. Thus vanishes the original occasion and continuing cause of the Davis resolutions, and we shall hear of them no more. For having accomplished this, as also for coming out squarely against free coinage, the Minnesota convention deserves all thanks. On the question of peace and war and a fighting navy, its utterances were of the usual incoherent order. It "believes thoroughly" in arbitration, but at the same time wants to see preparations made for this country to become "invincible in war." But it doesn't want ships and invincibility in order to fight with; oh no, only to "secure peace" without a struggle, by simply displaying them. But haven't we "secured peace" absolutely for eighty years with the great naval powers, without any navy ourselves? Has any country respected us the less, or attempted to ride over us or wrong us? Have not, in fact, the talk and threat and actual imminence of war increased *pari passu* with the increase of our navy? Everybody except the Jingoes and the platform-makers knows that this is so.

We must all be grateful to Mr. Phelps for the address on the Monroe Doctrine which he has just delivered in Brooklyn. It is a remarkable outburst of common sense on a topic which has apparently a remarkable affinity for folly and ignorance. We are the more grateful for it because one of the worst phenomena of our time (if this be not a bull) is the silence of our leading men, of the men who know, and can speak with authority, in times of popular excitement, about matters of national importance. Every "craze" and every folly which comes up and takes hold of the popular mind through the newspapers, has generally a good run of a month or two before any rational person of weight or distinction takes hold of it, and "calls a halt." Lodge, Morgan, Chandler, Livingston, and the Old Pensioner, and a score of others, one-third ignoramus, one-third fool, and one-third knave, were blathering away about the Monroe Doctrine for months before a policeman could be found to interfere with them. No nation can go on in this way. If its men of light and leading will not talk, it cannot last as a civilized and free state. It is mind, after all, that moves the mass. Mass without mind means brute force, and the moral decline to which brute force always tends. Speaking out entails no penalty of which the "vir justus et tenax propositi" has any reason to be afraid. A little newspaper vituperation is all he has to fear, and this to a good citizen ought to be as water is to a duck's back.

Mr. Ritchie, President of the British Board of Trade, and a member of the cabinet, said last week that overtures looking to the establishment of a permanent court of arbitration between this country and Great Britain had been laid before the United States Government by Lord Salisbury. This news will be received with the utmost satisfaction by the promoters of the conference which is to meet in Washington on the 22d and 23d of April. The conversion of Lord Salisbury to the doctrine has been looked upon as the difficult task in the whole proceeding. Now that it has been accomplished, there ought to be no difficulty in bringing about the desired result, except such as is inherent in the nature of the undertaking. The mode of constituting the court and of defining its procedure will be the subject of discussion after the principle has been agreed to. As our Government was committed to the principle by the unanimous vote of both houses of Congress in 1890, there ought to be no remaining obstacle on this side of the water.

The prolonged marching up hill and down on the Cuban resolutions has at least had one good effect. It has plainly notified the country that Congress has not one spark of honest conviction, and only the dullest gleams of intelligence, in the whole affair. The agreement of the conference committee, now on the House resolutions, then on the Senate, does not mean that a particle of rational discussion has been given to either set, but only that a desperate and shamefaced determination to have resolutions of some kind has controlled the conferees. To be dignified, to act on full information, to weigh the consequences of action, to inquire what our duty is under law and treaty — none of these things is dreamed of in congressional philosophy. The pretence that it is, has now been fortunately dispelled by the public display of insincerity and shuffling kept up for a month, and the President would be perfectly justified in paying no more attention to the resolutions than he would to the voting of a mock Congress in a grammar-school.

The London *Spectator* remarks upon the recent blather in our Senate on Cuban affairs, that the Americans imagine they are dealing only with Spain, but in reality they are risking an alteration in the relations of all Europe. It says that Spain has already applied to France for diplomatic assistance in the event of a war with the United States, and that she is able to offer terms which will make it worth while for France to assist her. One method by which assistance could be rendered to her without any breach of relations with us would be by making it easy for Spain to borrow money in Paris. Whatever aid France might supply would tend to detach Spain from the Triple Al-

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liance, where her sympathies now lie, and place her on the side of France in the next European conflict. In short, the United States cannot attack the interests of Spain without producing grave consequences in Europe and causing a storm which they have no intention of producing. The *Spectator* writes without the intention of influencing opinion here, but merely to show that the American policy of non-intervention in the affairs of Europe cannot be maintained if an aggressive policy is pursued toward European governments. This is true, even though our Senators have no intention other than that of "hollering" and proclaiming their readiness, like Senator Thurston, to spill the blood of their nearest relatives to vindicate the nation's honor. An American Congressman does not concern himself so much with the shifting of the balance of power in Europe as he does with the shifting of the balance of the delegates in the "deestrick." You may talk till all is blue about France and Spain and the rest of the world: you will never get his attention very far from the caucus that deals with his renomination.

Secretary Lamont's answer to the inquiries of the Senate committee on military affairs for information as to the reason why the War Department is opposed to the bestowal of a lieutenant-generalship on Gen. Miles, seems so complete that one cannot help regretting that it was not called for before the movement for Gen. Miles's promotion was set on foot. It is unpleasant to have such a movement, when once begun, fail for any reason whatever. Its failure seems to raise a question about the General's own merit, when there is and can be no such question. Mr. Lamont simply says that only six officers have held the grade of Lieutenant-General since the foundation of the Government; that in no case has it been bestowed on any officer who has not commanded an independent force in active service; that it was not bestowed, prior to 1870, on several officers, such as Halleck, Meade, and Hancock, who had fulfilled this condition; and that it was provided by positive enactment in 1870 that the offices then held by Sherman and Sheridan should not be filled after their death. In other words, the rank seems to be reserved, by a piece of commendable national policy, for officers who command the whole army, or an independent part of it, as a reward for successful active service. We ought in many ways to display a good deal more of this reserve than we do. It is extremely difficult to maintain any degrees in our rewards or eulogies, so prone are our Congressmen to get everything there is in the way of honor or prize for anybody whom they like. It is no fault of Gen. Miles that he has not fulfilled the conditions annexed by precedent or law to the bestowal of this rank. That he would fulfil them if the occasion offered, no one who knows him doubts, but it is not kind of his friends in Congress to compel controversy in the matter. Glory is a thing which should never be haggled over.

The manner in which the Greater New York bill passed the Assembly on Thursday left no room for doubt as to the political influences which are behind it. The Platt and Tammany forces voted solidly for it, under the leadership of Hamilton Fish, who, only a few years ago, won the testimonial of a set of diamond shirt-studs from Tammany as a reward for his usefulness in leading a similar "combine" through a session of the Assembly which had a Democratic majority. Without Tammany support the bill would have failed. The strongest speeches against it were made by Republicans, although it is a Republican machine measure, and no less than thirty-eight Republicans voted with the opposition. Nearly all the Tammany contingent, twenty-two of them, voted with the Platt men, and without this support the bill would have fallen seven votes short of enough to pass it. Of the 103 Republican members, only 63 could be induced to support the bill, although the power of the Platt machine was exerted to whip them into line. The bill is now under consideration by the Mayors of the three cities affected, New York, Brooklyn, and Long Island City, and its merits will be discussed at public hearings. It is assumed that the Mayor of Brooklyn will refuse to approve it, and it is generally believed that Mayor Strong will do the same. Public sentiment in Brooklyn is strongly aroused against it, and the result of the hearings there is well known in advance. The people of this city have been strangely lethargic about the question, but we believe that they are beginning to awake to the grave considerations involved in it, and that before the hearings upon it are ended they will leave no doubt as to their position toward it.

It is so long since the Congregationalists have had the pleasant excitement of a trial for heresy that the recent case at Madison, Connecticut, was naturally regarded as an entertaining novelty. The findings of the council, moreover, acquitting the accused clergyman, have a humorous relish about them. At least they appear humorous to inexpert outsiders, though how they struck the staid old church-members who brought the charges we cannot say. The council gently reminds them of "the differences in the training and environment of the pastor and the complaining members." The pastor, that is, had been studying and assimilating the results of modern scholarship, while the sleepy people in Madison had been foolishly trusting to the stability of the faith once delivered to the saints, and had not awakened to the necessity of a new creed every twenty-five years. It evidently seemed laughable to the learned members of the council that any one should be so old-fashioned, at this time of day, as to insist upon a literal interpretation of the Incarnation, the Atonement, and Inspiration. With the honest zeal of politicians, they advised pastor and people to "get together," and it is gratifying to learn that "a general love feast" followed, as a result of which it is confidently hoped that all differences of training and environment will be hereafter amicably surmounted.

The declarations made in the Italian Parliament on March 25, to the effect that an alliance had been made between Italy and Great Britain, not in a formal way, but based upon common interests, are very important, but probably are not a surprise to the statesmen of Europe. The maritime power of the Mediterranean, said Baron Blanc, the ex-Minister of Foreign Affairs, was the effective bond between Great Britain and the Dreibund. The Mediterranean being the highway to India as well as to Egypt, England is bound to make the control of it her first consideration, and here she can look only to Italy as an ally. The Italian navy is next to that of France, and, when combined with that of Great Britain, so far outweighs everything else in those waters that little account need be taken of the remainder.

The protest of France and Russia against the use of the Egyptian Reserve Fund for the expedition against the Dervishes has but little consequence except as an expression of dislike of the English occupation of Egypt and of the virtual addition of England to the Triple Alliance. It could have importance only if it were likely to be followed up by war, and of this there is no prospect whatever. In fact, France may for the present be counted out of the military game in Europe. In case of a reverse, the Government would be overturned, and we should have a repetition of the Commune. In case of triumph, the victorious general would surely be carried into a dictatorship. Both the parties in France are fully aware of these contingencies, and shrink from facing them, so that the British will probably have nothing more serious to fear than energetic discontent. The Porte will do nothing more than make inquiries, and Italy with England behind her will probably be able to patch up a peace with Menelek that will at least *seem* honorable. One of the most curious results of the Italian disasters is a great revival of the hopes of the Blacks in Italy about the temporal power: Menelek, acting under divine guidance, has shaken the Italian throne, and prepared the way for the restoration of Rome to its lawful owner,

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FATAL MAJORITIES.

AMID all the ups and downs of parties in State and nation for the past ten years, one fact stands out conspicuously—the increasingly fatal effect of a majority. To get a majority is the great end of party striving. Sea and land are compassed to secure it. When obtained it is welcomed with immense huzzaing, and loud-sounding talk is heard of an "assured lease of power for twenty-five years," and so on; whereas the usual, the now almost invariable, result, is, that a party in a great majority at one election is in a humiliatingly small minority at the next. And the small minority appears to be the direct consequence of the big majority. It is as if all the straining and desperate labor to get a party majority were but so many elaborate preparations to commit party suicide.

Politicians themselves are dimly aware of this law of political self-destruction. It is generally considered, for example, a disadvantage to have control of the Congress just preceding a Presidential election. On the stump the wicked incapacity of the other fellows is a much more inviting theme than the wisdom and patriotism which you yourself have displayed, in ways too often past finding out. It is safe to say that the greatest menace to Republican success next fall is the present Republican Congress. We know, in fact, that Republican leaders, in Congress and throughout the country, are in distress and dismay over the performances at Washington. Some of the very Senators and Representatives who in public take on the loftiest tone, in private wring their hands and almost shed tears as they speak of the mad passion, the mulishness, the greed, the sheer stupidity put so disastrously on exhibition by the party in control of Congress. To be sure, they do nothing effective to check the madness. They appear to be themselves as mad as the rest. Though they groan and grieve over the reckless imbecility of their party following, they imitate the example of the French leader of a "section" who, standing in a doorway as his people rushed off to tear up the paving and make a barricade, was heard to mutter despairingly: "I must go along with them, for I am their chief" ("Il faut que je les suive, car je suis leur chef").

Why is it that the triumph of parties so swiftly becomes their destruction? Why do Platt and Croker, Crisp and Reed, so surely turn a majority into a rope to hang the party with? What is the reason that a majority can no longer be used for the benefit of both country and party, and so retained or made larger? One answer is, the decline of political leadership. We have more shrewd and masterful captains of fifties and captains of hundreds than ever before, but political commanders of the higher ranks are growing fewer. The men who get supreme control cannot see beyond their noses. They have never been to school in higher politics. They have never learned the first lesson of government by majority—moderation. We say a majority can do what it pleases, but it cannot. That prime minister or that boss is near his fall who says: "This measure is pretty bad; we must apply our majority to it." Moderation is the last thing our party chiefs and bosses think of. What is a majority for if not to be used for all it is worth? Hence, one after the other, in dreary succession, they run the same old round. Swept into power by the popular disgust with the party last in the majority, they straightway proceed to execute the villany the other side has taught them, usually bettering the instruction, display wilder partisan fury, excite deeper disgust, and go down in completer wreck. Then they crawl out from under the ruins, and complain of the fickleness of the popular judgment.

Another deadly element in a party majority is the character of too many of the men who compose it. In every great political reaction strange bits of driftwood are borne to the surface. Adventurers who know that they are but the accidents of an hour, wretched political ephemeridæ that buzz their little day and then fall into putrefaction, they make up a difficult audience to which to preach moderation. Are they to miss the only chance of a lifetime? Will the leaders who implore them to be considerate and far-sighted guarantee them a return to the next Congress or Legislature if they refrain from selling themselves to the devil in this? It is all very well to remind them of the interest of the party, but how about the interest of the party of the first part? That is what they have both eyes on, and that is what they pursue day and night, turning neither to the right hand nor to the left, and by log-rolling, by voting as they are paid, by "strikes," and speculations, and legislative "good things," they rush madly ahead to enrich themselves and ruin their party.

There is, moreover, something in the very methods and machinery by which a party majority is won that carries in it the seeds of death. The bosses are partly the cause, partly the creature, of the forces with which they work. They get a majority only by lavish promises right and left of patronage and largess, and then they have to go to work to invent the patronage and to swell the corruption fund. The pack of snarling, snapping curs that is at the heels of every boss, threatening to bite unless a bone is thrown them, is enough to embitter the sweetest temper. No wonder that so many of our naturally amiable bosses grow melancholy and irritable. Doubtless many of their schemes of plunder are resorted to, not out of native wickedness, but only to still the clamor of the greedy underlings whose support has been won by promises and can be kept only by spoils. There is thus an accelerated motion in a party majority, as nowadays secured, which hurries it on ever faster and more furiously along the path of corruption until it crashes into ruin. Imagine Phaeton McKinley successful in getting a majority by the methods his boodling managers adopt; one can easily picture the terrific party smash that would be certain to follow from his reckless driving, and the thunderbolt of popular rage that would lay him low.

How not only to get a majority but to keep it, and make it decent, conservative, useful, is the study to which party leaders should give their midnight vigils. How not to do it is writ large enough for even their not too alert minds to perceive, in the political history of the past decade. Horrible examples, solemn warnings, they have in plenty—let them look in the mirror if they see none elsewhere. But shining exemplars, successful models, they also have, if they would look at them, in the history of Anglo-Saxon popular government. It is an old lesson, but one so forgotten that it seems new, that moderation in victory, putting the public good before partisan advantage, building a majority upon a political principle, not upon greed and pelf, are the only ways of making a party majority more deadly to your opponents than to yourself. How many more surgical operations will our politicians need to undergo at the hands of Doctor Civis Americanus before they get that idea into their heads?

THE POLICY OF RECIPROCITY.

CONGRESSMAN HOPKINS, a member of the ways and means committee and chairman of its sub-committee on reciprocity and commercial treaties, has sent out a circular to manufacturers and others asking whether the effect of the treaties negotiated under the authority of the McKinley tariff act was favorable or unfavorable to this country, and what was the effect of their repeal by the existing tariff act; also, what can be accomplished by diplomatic negotiations in extending the export trade of the United States.

Reciprocity, it should be remarked, was not a Republican doctrine, but rather the contrary, until the famous scene took place in a committee-room of the Senate, where the late James G. Blaine, Secretary of State, smashed his hat on the table and denounced the McKinley tariff in excited terms, declaring that it would not make a market in any part of the world for another bushel of wheat or barrel of pork for the American farmer. When this emphatic declaration became publicly known, Senator Aldrich offered a new clause as an addition to the McKinley bill, which was known as the reciprocity amendment. It provided that whenever the President should be satisfied that any country producing and exporting sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides, or any of those articles, should impose duties on the products of the United States which he (the President) should deem unreasonable in view of our

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admitting those articles free of duty, he should suspend the free admission of such articles from those countries for such time as he should deem just, and impose upon them certain specified rates of duty. Under this provision, treaties of reciprocity were negotiated with Central America (except Costa Rica), Brazil, British Guiana, the British West Indies, San Domingo, and Spain (for Cuba and Porto Rico). Venezuela declined to make a treaty with us, in consequence of which her coffee was subjected by President Harrison to a duty of three cents per pound, although it had been free of duty under our tariff for nearly twenty years. Colombia and Hayti also declined to make such treaties, and their coffee was subjected to duty in like manner.

In this way the principle of reciprocity, which has been called "free trade in spots," was lugged into the party creed and received the sanction of the Minneapolis convention. In the platform of 1892 it was referred to in these terms:

> "We point to the success of the Republican policy of reciprocity, under which our export trade has vastly increased, and new and enlarged markets have been opened for the products of our farms and workshops. We remind the people of the bitter opposition of the Democratic party to this practical business measure, and claim that, executed by a Republican administration, our present laws will eventually give us control of the trade of the world."

A copy of the Hopkins circular having been sent to Mr. James M. Swank, general manager of the American Iron and Steel Association, he publishes a reply to it in his *Bulletin*, saying, however, that it is an expression of his individual views only. His answer is interesting as coming from a protectionist of the old school who has not been tainted with any new-fangled notions on the subject of foreign trade. It also contains statistics of our trade with the several countries, covering the period immediately before the treaties were negotiated, and during their continuance, and immediately after their repeal. These statistics, since they embrace only eight years, some of which were marked by financial panics, cannot be considered decisive, yet they have a negative value in the way of disproving the claims of the new-fledged advocates of reciprocity.

They show that our export trade to the above-named countries increased during the three years *before* reciprocity went into operation from about $31,000,000 to nearly $42,000,000, or 35 per cent.; that during the next three years, while reciprocity was in operation, it increased to $53,500,000, or 28 per cent.; during the year 1894, while the treaties were still in operation, it declined to $52,800,000, and that in the last year for which statistics are given, 1895, it declined to $45,500,000, the decline being wholly in the trade with Cuba and being due to the rebellion in that island. Although the treaties were all repealed, the trade with the other countries taken together showed no diminution.

By way of comparison Mr. Swank introduces the statistics of our trade with Canada (with which we had no treaty) during the same years, and here the changes and percentages correspond closely with those of the treaty countries, showing that the treaties had slight effect if any, our export trade being controlled by forces of wider scope. On the other hand, Mr. Swank shows that our exports to Mexico, with which we had no treaty, increased more rapidly than to any of the countries where reciprocity existed. In the matter of iron and steel, with which Mr. Swank is more especially concerned, he says that our exports "increased over 66 per cent. in the four years from 1887 to 1890 without reciprocity; that from 1891 to 1894 there was an actual decrease under reciprocity; and that in 1895 there was an increase over 1894 of over 17 per cent. without reciprocity."

Having demolished reciprocity with statistics, Mr. Swank decries it on grounds of principle. He calls it "a fatal error," an abandonment of the policy of the fathers of the republic, and a substitution of "the British policy of commercial treaties." This new policy was adopted, he says, "not to protect and preserve the home market for home producers, which is the very essence of the protective policy of the fathers, but that foreign markets of less value than the trade of one of our great States might be captured." He thinks also that a deplorable mistake was made when sugar was put on the free list in the McKinley tariff and a bounty voted to our own sugar-planters. This feature of the bill he considers the parent of the reciprocity clause, since without free sugar there would have been no basis for reciprocity at all.

The statistics introduced by Mr. Swank may serve to refute the advocates of the treaties, in so far as they set up a claim that our exports were largely increased thereby, yet they cannot be considered conclusive. There were two disturbances of trade during the period covered by them, the Baring crisis in England in 1890 and our own panic of 1893, the effects of the latter being still felt. Moreover, a longer period than four years would be necessary for a test, even in normal times. Mr. Swank's letter is chiefly significant as a protest of the old school against the schism and heresy which crept into the party as a consequence of Mr. Blaine's hat-smashing episode in 1890.

THE DELAWARE SENATORSHIP CONTEST.

ARMS have been so much to the fore in the Senate during the past two months that the laws have been silent. Yet a highly important legal and constitutional question has been under discussion, off and on, for four weeks, to which the newspaper correspondents, and therefore the people in general, have given almost no attention. We refer to the contest over the representation of Delaware in the United States Senate. It is now up as a question of the highest privilege, and has the right of way over all other business until it is settled. The debate is still going on, and will doubtless go on for some time to come, though all the essentials both of law and of fact have been pretty thoroughly displayed in the speeches already delivered.

The facts are agreed to by all concerned. The Delaware Legislature was in prolonged deadlock in its balloting for United States Senator. "Gas" Addicks had bought the State for the Republicans, and supposed that, of course, the senatorship went with it; but a few ridiculously squeamish members refused to vote for him, and an adjournment without election seemed probable. On the last day of the session, however, May 9, 1895, 28 ballots were taken; 30 members were present in joint assembly, 15 votes being cast for Henry A. Du Pont, and the other 15 being divided. No majority for any candidate appears upon the record, therefore, but Mr. Du Pont makes his contest, and the majority report of the committee on privileges and elections proposes to award him the seat, on the ground that one member present and voting in the joint assembly was illegally present and voting. With this vote expunged from the record, there would have been a total of but 29 votes, and Mr. Du Pont would have been elected.

This member, thus challenged, was William T. Watson, the Senator duly elected from the county of Kent, chosen Speaker of the Delaware Senate on its organization, and becoming, under the State Constitution, acting-Governor upon the death of Gov. Marvil on April 8, 1895. On May 9, the last day of the session, Mr. Watson entered the Senate chamber, took his seat as Speaker (the President *pro tempore* resigning it to him), and went with the Senate to the hall of the House of Representatives, where he joined, without protest, in the balloting for United States Senator. It is contended by Mr. Du Pont that the office of Senator from Kent had been vacated by Mr. Watson's accession to the acting-governorship, and that therefore the legal number of the joint assembly was 29, not 30.

The argument for the contestant, which was presented at length by Senator Mitchell, is based, first, upon the common-law doctrine of incompatibility—in other words, that the same person shall not simultaneously exercise incompatible offices, and that the offices of Governor and member of the Legislature are incompatible. It is also argued that the Constitution of Delaware expressly prohibits such duplication of office. The right of the United States Senate to go back of the record of a Legislature is maintained, not as to facts, but as to the law governing the organization. If the Legislature, or a branch of it, did not perceive that the law and Constitution of the State made a seat va-

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cant, that does not estop the United States Senate, so Senator Mitchell contended, from revising the legislative record so as to make it conform to law. The record in question thus revised would show that Mr. Du Pont had received a majority of the votes legally cast for United States Senator, and is therefore entitled to his seat.

The argument for the minority of the committee, which was ably presented by Senator Turpie, sets forth, first, the absolutely binding nature of a legislative record upon the United States Senate. The Senate of Delaware is the sole judge of the qualifications of its own members. The uniform practice of the United States Senate was laid down in a report on a contested-election case in 1873:

"In the opinion of your committee it is not competent for the Senate to inquire as to the right of individual members to sit in a Legislature which is conceded to have a quorum in both houses of legally elected members. But, undoubtedly, the Senate must always inquire whether the body which pretended to elect the Senator was a Legislature of the State or not, because a Senator can only be elected by the Legislature of a State."

Judicial decisions point the same way. A Kansas Legislature once contained an unconvicted felon. Under the State Constitution his seat should have been declared vacant. But the Legislature refused to act, and when his case was brought before the Supreme Court of the State, Judge Brewer, now of the Supreme Court at Washington, decided that there could be no interference from the outside, holding that if either house of the Legislature "refuses to oust a member, his seat is beyond judicial challenge."

It is denied, further, that the Speaker of the Delaware Senate succeeds to the "office" of Governor. The Constitution says that he shall "exercise the office until a Governor elected by the people shall be duly qualified." As a practical construction of the clause it is averred that, historically, every one of the five persons who, under the present Constitution of Delaware, have succeeded to the governorship, as Speaker Watson did, "without a single exception, after the expiry of the time limited for the temporary exercise of executive authority, went into the Senate and completed his term as Senator without protest, without objection." At the time of Mr. Watson's participation in the joint assembly no protest was made against his action until *after* the last ballot was taken, when, apparently as an afterthought, a protest was presented as a ground for the contest before the United States Senate.

Without undertaking to affirm how the Senate ought to or will decide this question, we are bound to say that any attempt of the Senate to go back of the record of a State Legislature is certain to lead to great abuses. The qualifications of electors, as well as of legislators, may be inquired into on the same ground; the fairness of elections passed upon; and thus the constitutional right of all Legislatures to be the sole judges of the qualifications and credentials of their own members insidiously undermined. For better or for worse, we must stand upon the right and duty of the States to manage their own affairs without federal interference; and the election of a United States Senator is a State affair.

GERMAN AND IRISH CRIME AND DISORDER.

THE recently issued census volume on Crime, Pauperism, and Benevolence shows how much more numerous on June 1, 1890, among the persons of Irish birth or parentage than among persons of German birth or parentage were the inmates of prisons, almshouses, juvenile reformatories, and benevolent institutions. At that time there were in the United States 4,142,199 persons both of whose parents were born in Ireland, and 5,776,186 both of whose parents were born in Germany. Thus there were 140 persons of pure German blood in the country for every 100 persons of pure Irish blood. On June 1, 1890, however, 13,490 of the latter class were confined in prison, as against only 4,869 of the former. Or, stating the same thing in another way, it appears that out of every million persons of Irish birth or parentage there were 3,257 confined in prison, and out of every million Germans there were only 782, or but little more than one-fourth as many.

The same disproportion, though in a somewhat slighter degree, exists among the juvenile offenders, 2,587 of whom had Irish parents, as against 1,060 of German parentage. Out of every million persons of Irish parentage there were 624 confined as juvenile offenders, while out of a like number of Germans there were only 183. Among the paupers in almshouses the difference was nearly though not quite so great: 15,933 of such paupers were of Irish parentage, 7,793 were of German parentage. That is, there were 3,844 paupers per million of the Irish inhabitants and 1,349 per million of the German. Substantially the same proportions are maintained among the inmates of benevolent institutions: 24,147 were Irish, 11,505 were German. Out of every million inhabitants both of whose parents were Irish, 5,824 were to be found in benevolent institutions; 1,991 out of every million of German parentage were in like places.

It thus appears that out of every 1,000,000 persons residing in this country in 1890, both of whose parents were Irish, 13,549 were, on the first day of June of that year, public charges, as against 4,305 in every 1,000,000 persons of pure German parentage. In other words, the Irish contribute to the dependent and delinquent classes, in proportion to their numbers, something more than three for every one furnished by the Germans.

Any complete explanation of this difference would be difficult if not impossible. But partial explanation is comparatively easy. The Irish went so long without popular or technical education, or common social justice, that the national character was seriously affected by it. It bred a certain disinclination and incapacity for steady industry, which is the leading characteristic of low civilization. The absence of legal protection, in like manner, bred disrespect for law and a tendency to protective law-breaking. Moreover, the possession of a franchise during the last hundred years which had no influence whatever on the government of their country, begot skill in the use of electoral machinery, and in electoral tricks and intrigue, without developing any sense of political responsibility or of public duty. The love of drink in the Irish is probably temperamental—that is, compounded partly of love of excitement and partly of sociability. The disposition of the Irish who land here to go into the liquor business is due partly to ignorance of all other kinds of business, and partly to want of capital.

That the Catholic religion counts for something in their apparent want of political capacity must be admitted, without meaning to be disrespectful to the church, if we rely on historical experience, for no Catholic community can be said to have succeeded in modern politics. The histories of Spain, France, Italy, and the Spanish-American republics, contrasted with those of England, Germany, Holland, Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, strongly suggest, at all events, the belief that creed has much to do with the ability to carry on modern governments. The Catholic creed probably lessens individual initiative and self-dependence by the large part direction plays in it, and for similar reasons may possibly weaken the power of resisting the temptation to certain forms of crime and social disorder. The knowledge of the English language, too, has been in America a misfortune for the Irish, from which the Germans escape, because it brings them at once in intelligent contact with the worst American tendencies.

The Germans, on the other hand, besides the greater phlegm of their race, come here with a much better home education, with a much more widely diffused training in handicrafts, with a love of beer instead of whiskey, and with no training in the use of political machinery. Their relations to the law in their own country have always been normal, and their respect for official and other superiors has had a better basis than mere superiority of force. It has been historical in most cases, and maintained by superiority of knowledge and of function. Though last, not least, ignorance of the language keeps the German to himself and his own people for some time after his arrival in this country, and out of the way of the American temptations which foreigners are least fitted to bear. Foremost among these is the contempt for the government which

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grows out of observation of the office-holders, and is very trying, especially to the more ignorant immigrants. In truth, America is the last conntry to which a wise despot, seeking to transplant people according to their defects and capacities, would have sent the Irish, while he would probably have sent a large proportion of the German population here in the beginning of the century.

Correspondence.

A SINGLE-TAX COMMUNITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On the eastern shore of Mobile Bay, and some fifteen miles distant from the metropolis of Alabama, there is a growing community of men, women, and children whose daily lives are, to a great extent, governed by the fiscal theories of Mr. Henry George. Fairhope is the name of this unique colony, and its members appear to be as happy and contented as one could expect to find a community of one year's experience. The fundamental principles of the community are thus set forth in the Fairhope *Courier:* "That which nature provides is the common property of all God's children; that which the individual creates belongs to the individual; that which the community creates belongs to the community."

These enthusiastic advocates of the common ownership of land have chosen for the site of their interesting social experiment one of the loveliest spots in the South. From the watershed about two miles back in the country the ground slopes gently towards the bay, and ends in a steep bluff of some fifty feet in altitude, thus affording an excellent system of natural drainage, while along the entire water-front a thick growth of oak, cedar, yupon, holly, pine, and magnolia forms a beautiful screen of perpetual foliage between the water and the bluff. The entire water-front, for a depth of 150 feet, has been reserved as a public park. The main street of the community begins at the bay, and, climbing the bluff by easy stages, runs back for about half a mile, being lined on either side with the cottages of the settlers. These are neat, substantial frame buildings of yellow pine (which grows here in great abundance), and are constructed in a manner that speaks well for the taste and skill of the occupants, while their modern furniture and doorbells are striking innovations in Southern farm life. At the intersection of the two principal streets are the store, the post-office, and the public well. A school building is soon to be erected. Religious services are held in the private residences.

The community owns about 350 acres of unencumbered land, and is, so far, free from debt. It has also constructed a wharf and pier-head. The system of land tenure has already been mentioned; but while the title is vested in the community, the members may obtain parcels of land under leases voidable only at the option of the lessee. The rental of the land is fixed by annual appraisal, according to its natural advantages of fertility and location. The unearned increment is appropriated by the community.

The government of the community is a pure democracy, and the administration of public affairs is vested in an executive council composed of the superintendents of lands and highways, public services, industries, and public health, together with the treasurer of the community. In order to render all officers directly responsible to the people, the Swiss expedient of the initiative and referendum is incorporated in the scheme of government. Hence any act of the council must be submitted to a communal vote, if ten per cent. of the voters petition it, while, on petition of twenty per cent. of the voters, the question of the dismissal of any officer must be submitted to popular vote.

No taxes other than the rent of land are paid by the members of the community, and all State and local taxes are paid by the community itself. Some revenue is derived from wharf tolls.

The members of the Fairhope Colony are mainly from the Northwest, the moving spirit in the experiment being Ernest B. Gaston, a graduate of Drake University, Iowa. Others whose names are associated with the venture are Alfred Wooster, a Western journalist, and J. Bellangee, sometime professor of mathematics in the University of Nebraska.

It was desired to found a community which should put into practice the principles held by its members, and a committee of two was sent out to find a favorable location. After a long search through Texas, Arkansas, Tennessee, Mississippi, and Alabama, the present spot was finally chosen for the home of the Association. The land was purchased, and on January 14, 1895, the first ground was broken. The succeeding summer was mainly taken up in clearing the ground, but a small crop was raised and sold. For the coming season the amount of land under cultivation will be much greater, and fruits, "truck," and grain will be grown. Of course the main source of revenue is the sale of these products, which are for the most part shipped North and West. A canning-factory is projected for next summer.

Curiously enough, very few of the colonists come from agricultural pursuits. Some of the callings represented are medicine, journalism, gardening, draying, woodworking, and cigar-making. A detective, a sailor, and a "new woman" are also to be found in the community. More of the settlers come from Iowa than from any other State. Some are from Missouri, Kansas, Louisiana, Minnesota, Indiana, Florida, Illinois, and Pennsylvania, while even British Columbia and England are represented.—Respectfully yours,

Gardiner L. Tucker.

University of the South,
Sewanee, Tenn., March 28, 1896.

CONCERNING ROCK-FISHES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of March 12, in a notice of my paper on the Crania of *Sebastodes*, these words occur: "His [Cramer's] statement that these fishes [the group of Rock-Fishes] abruptly disappear to the southward of the United States to reappear in the temperate and cold waters of western South America, is somewhat incorrect; they retire to greater depths under the tropics—that is all."

This statement may be true, but it is only guesswork. The southernmost limit of *Sebastodes* on the North American Coast is found in the Gulf of California (*Sebastodes sinensis*). The northern limit in South America is found in the Mejillones Islands, off Southern Peru. In other words, not a specimen has been taken between the tropic of Cancer and a point near that of Capricorn. Until we have information as to the habits of the tropical *Sebastodes*, we cannot say whether they retire. F. C.

[There are now in print illustrations of Pacific Rock-Fishes, taken at points less than ten degrees from the equator, which will before long enable Mr. Cramer to judge of the actual scientific value of the positive assertions he bases entirely on his lack of specimens or of knowledge.—Ed. Nation.]

HIRED GIRL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is not necessary to go back to former generations to find out the origin and use of the term "hired girl," as, on Cape Cod, Massachusetts, it is used by the inhabitants at the present time. The hired girl is usually the daughter of a neighbor; she takes her meals with the family, and is treated in every respect as an equal—as she is.

There are many other terms used on "The Cape," which I have never heard elsewhere. When a person is ill, and confined to his bed, they speak of him as being "sick in his naked bed." A thunder-storm is always called a tempest, etc. In 'The Raiders,' by S. R. Crockett, I noticed the term "naked bed." Why called "naked"? P.

Pau, France, March 19, 1896.

Notes.

Ginn & Co. will shortly bring out 'A Guide to the Study of American History,' by Profs. Edward Channing and Albert Bushnell Hart of Harvard University.

Mr. William Astor Chanler's 'Through Jungle and Desert,' in northeastern Africa, namely; the private correspondence of Ernest and Henrietta Renan, under the title, 'Brother and Sister'; and 'The Geographical Distribution of Mammals,' by R. Lyddeker, are just forthcoming from Macmillan & Co.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are about to issue 'Four-Handed Folk,' by Olive Thorne Miller; 'Spring Notes from Tennessee,' by Bradford Torrey; the fourth, unfinished, volume of the late Prof. Herbert Tuttle's 'History of Prussia'; 'The Expansion of Religion,' by Dr. Donald, the successor of Phillips Brooks; and 'Pirate Gold,' by F. J. Stimson.

'Motion Songs for Public Schools,' by Miss Mabel L. Pray, photographically illustrated, will be issued immediately by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

A play which has had the rare distinction of being represented in this city within a few months in four languages, and by three of the most eminent living actresses, Sudermann's "Heimath," has just been admirably translated for the "Sock and Buskin Library" of Lamson, Wolffe & Co., Boston, by Mr. Charles E. A. Winslow. It has been beautifully printed at the University Press in Cambridge, and tastefully bound. The title, "Magda," is that under which this very modern drama is given by the incomparable Duse, whom no one should neglect to see in a rôle so well adapted to her power to move and to charm. The reading of Mr. Winslow's refined translation will be a most valuable preliminary.

Mr. William Kent, author of 'The Mechanical Engineer's Pocket Book' (John Wiley & Sons) is evidently well qualified by talent and

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experience for his task, and his book, for industrial engineers at least, is well in advance of any of its predecessors, as Molesworth, Haswell, or Nystrom. In the thousand or more closely printed pages dealing with general or mechanical engineering matters there seems to be little or nothing either superfluous or criticisable. While the book deals to only a small extent with matters purely electrical, the main body of the matter contained in it is of nearly as great value to electrical engineers as to their mechanical brethren. It is unfortunate that the few pages (less than fifty) which relate distinctively to electricity do not contain a better selection; and while we cannot expect all knowledge to be contained in one book, we must regret the admission of doubtful matter in a province with which the author can scarcely be expected to have an intimate acquaintance. Reward awaits the man with the necessary ability, experience, and industry to compile an electrical engineer's book as satisfactory in its special field as is Kent's book in the mechanical field. The typography of this volume is remarkably good.

The appearance, in an eighth edition, of Legouvé's 'Histoire Morale des Femmes' (Paris: Hetzel) reminds us anew how unfailingly the charm of literary beauty may be relied upon to save from oblivion works otherwise mainly of temporary interest. It should be said, however, that only part of the claims advanced in this eloquent plea for justice to woman—first published nearly half a century ago—have since been realized. The gracious and high-minded author of the book, now the Nestor of French Academicians, may therefore hope to see its influence continue among the younger generations. As a chapter from the history of civilization in France the work may well be read with interest and profit.

That Georges Ohnet is not a literary artist has been repeated *ad nauseam* by every French critic who values his own reputation. That he cannot write like the author of 'Le Lys Rouge,' or the author of 'Les Demi-Vierges,' or the author of 'La Cendre,' has become a truism repeated in every *chronique littéraire*. He is sentimental, wishy-washy, flabby, namby-pamby, and all the rest of it. Nevertheless, his books sell nearly as well, if not quite as well, as those of Zola, and 'Le Maître de Forges' is a success on the English and on the American stage, and not a failure on the French. Ohnet has written poor work, it is true, but he has also done good work, and at least he knows how to write a novel which is interesting without being obscene or sensual, which contains well-drawn characters not analyzed to weariness, and can tell a story bright enough to be read from start to finish without a pause. Such a story, and forcible withal, is 'La Fille du Député' (Paris: Paul Ollendorf), somewhat romanesque, and introducing the now almost inevitable priest, though in modest fashion, a very charming figure of a young girl who does not put passion above duty, a young Frenchman wonderfully like a decent American or clean-run Englishman, and a capital Socialist Deputy, most faithfully depicted as to his convictions and inconsistencies.

'Le Roi Apépi,' by Victor Cherbuliez (Paris: Borel), is a brilliant little novel, with all its author's qualities in evidence. The subject is by no means new: the rescue of a fine young fellow from the hands of a designing woman. The rescuer is a delightful old diplomat, clever, cool, and witty, who circumvents intriguing mother and fascinating daughter, and brings about their total discomfiture. The novel is not one to be read because it is naughty, for it is not this, but simply because it is a capital story, very well told by a very clever writer.

The Comtesse de Martel, whom everybody knows as "Gyp," the audacious, the amusing "Gyp," has given us another book, 'Le Bonheur de Ginette' (Paris: Calmann Lévy), which, however, is not in any respect up to 'Le Mariage de Chiffon,' though the heroine recalls at times that very attractive young lady. It is a work which disappoints us when two-thirds read, for just there Gyp goes off into the tiresome old beaten track of illicit love, though Ginette has up to this point shown too much force of character and individuality to render intelligible her fall from grace, common sense, and womanliness.

'Aus meinem Leben: Erinnerungen und Rückblicke' (Stuttgart: Nägele) is the fragment of an autobiography by the eminent naturalist Carl Vogt, who died in Geneva, Switzerland, on May 5, 1895. He was born in Giessen, July 5, 1817, and was descended from a long line of rough-hewn and sturdy ancestors, who belonged for the most part to what he calls "the honorable guild of butchers." The first chapter, entitled "Die Stammfamilien," is a series of realistic sketches of these rude and robust forefathers, with anecdotes illustrative of their character. Then follow three chapters on his native town and its inhabitants, the gymnasium and university, and his own experiences as a lad and a student. His strictures on the methods of instruction are severe and doubtless well deserved. Modern European history and literature were utterly ignored, and there was never the slightest intimation given in the school that such persons as Lessing, Goethe, and Schiller had ever existed. Vogt joined Agassiz and Desor at Neuchâtel in August, 1839, immediately after having taken his doctor's degree at Berne, where his father was professor of clinical medicine. He speaks in the highest terms of Agassiz's ability as a zoölogist, declaring that he never met a man endowed with equal talent in this department of natural science. The volume ends with Agassiz's departure for America in 1846. It was Prof. Vogt's intention to complete this autobiography, giving an account of his sojourn in Paris and Italy, his political activity during the Revolution of 1848, his subsequent scientific studies at Nice, and his life at Geneva, where he was appointed in 1852 to the chair of geology in the university of that city; but his death occurred before he found time to execute his plan.

Debes's 'Neuer Handatlas' (Leipzig: Wagner & Debes), which for some time has been appearing in *Lieferung* fashion, is now complete and becomes a sharp competitor of the other excellent atlases in Germany. That country naturally receives the most attention. The lands of the Empire and those neighboring from Paris to Russia, and from Jutland to Genoa, are treated in surprising detail on eleven double-page maps. Each of the other European countries is represented by one double-page map; and twenty-two such maps are devoted to countries outside of Europe, many of them being more complete and exact than are to be found in almost any other work, *e. g.*, Palestine, Eastern Asia, and, more especially still, the German colonies. One map is devoted to North America, one to the United States, and one to the Eastern States of the Union. The climatological charts are worthy of special mention. The book is provided with an admirable index having over 150,000 geographical names. The mechanical preparation of the work is the very best in every particular. Like many other admirable German books, this atlas is sold at an astonishingly low price—thirty-two marks.

Pure science predominates in the *Geographical Journal* for March. In the opening article Prof. J. Milne treats of the movements of the earth's crust, with special reference to his observations of earthquakes during a twenty years' residence in Japan. These have had unexpectedly practical results in demonstrating the value of certain methods of building, by following which "the security of life and property is greater than it was in former years" in that country. The Government has established a bureau for earthquake investigation with 928 stations, and has endowed a chair of seismology at its university. Next follow an account of the researches of the Swedish oceanographers on the movements of the surface waters of the North Sea, and a description, by Mr. W. L. Sclater, of the geographical distribution of the mammals of the Ethiopian region. Each of these papers is illustrated with diagrams and charts. There is also a map of Siam showing the recent treaty boundaries as well as the French and English spheres of influence, and a communication from Prince Henry of Orleans, narrating his remarkable journey from China to India. His route was the shortest and most direct between the two countries, and has long been searched for by Englishmen without success, but it proves, unfortunately, not to be "practicable for trade."

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for March contains a vivacious account by Miss M. W. Kingsley of some incidents in her recent extraordinary journey in western equatorial Africa. She gives very graphic pictures of the abundant animal life on the Ogowé River—hippos, elephants, and crocodiles—of the swamp through which she waded for two hours "up to our chins all the time, and came out with a sort of astrachan collar of leeches," and of her Fan companions, whose cannibalistic propensities she describes with a cynical humor. The most interesting incident was an encounter with five gorillas, two of whom were "well over six feet." "When they passed from one plantain-tree to another across the clear ground, they waddled along in a most inelegant style, dragging their long arms knuckle downwards on the ground." But when disturbed, they displayed an amazing celerity. "I have seen various wild animals one time and another in their native wilds, but I have never seen anything so grand as a gorilla going through the forest. It is a powerful, graceful, superbly perfect trapeze performance." Sir D. P. Chalmers, recently Chief Justice of British Guiana, contributes an interesting sketch of that colony. He believes that its value lies "rather in its resources than in their actual present development." Though the sugar industry has declined, yet the export of gold has increased from 250 ounces in 1884 to 122,935 ounces in 1895.

The first four parts of *Biographische Blätter* (Berlin: Ernst Hofmann & Co.; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) compose volume one, and prove a worthy conception to have been worthily carried out. The "portraits" or sketches are mostly of Germans, and in the table of contents we remark one Englishman (Browning), one American (Holmes), one Russian (Bakunin), two Italians (Cagliostro and Pio IX., queer bedfellows), and half-a-dozen Frenchmen. There is considerable diversity in the matter. In part ii., for example, is a series of interesting letters from and to William von Humboldt, including one from Prof. G. F.

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Welcker of Bonn, pointing out Rousseau's 'Héloïse' as the source of Schiller's song to Emma, and of the beautiful chapel scene with the corpse of Ottilie in Goethe's 'Elective Affinities' (*Die Wahlverwandtschaften*). In part iv. we meet with two letters of the late Karl Hillebrand on reading as a means of culture, with a systematic outline, and five letters of E. M. Arndt's, written from 1844 to 1849. The *B. Blätter* is handsomely printed in the Roman letter.

In the last number of *Cosmopolis* there is a somewhat curious article by Herr E. Engel—an "appreciation" of the French Symbolist poets which lacks nothing in point of severity. Mr. Engel does not admit that the poets of the Symbolist group have any talent whatsoever. He makes, indeed, or half makes, an exception in the case of Verlaine, since he admires even profoundly the poem that begins:

"Il pleure dans mon cœur
Comme il pleut sur la ville."

But this he thinks is the only true lyric that Verlaine ever wrote. As to the rest, the younger men, like Maeterlinck, get but hard measure; they are nothing but so many "fumistes," and their vogue is due solely to the wilful obscurity of their work.

About a month ago the *Figaro* published an enlarged reproduction of the new model for French postage-stamps, for which a commission was given, under the ministry of M. André Lebon, to M. Grasset, the decorative artist. This showed a certain dryness in its design and execution which recalled the work of some of the old wood-engravers; but its archaism was too plainly a result of force of will and of main strength to be entirely pleasing. Since then both *L'Illustration* and the *Revue Encyclopédique* have given facsimiles of the new stamp unenlarged. In these the work of M. Grasset is seen to much better advantage: the figure of France in it losing its stiffness, and becoming much more youthful and graceful. But this amelioration came too late to save the stamp. M. Grasset's drawing has been rejected by the Ministry, and another trial is to be made.

Lilies and morning-glories and passion-flowers, with many spring flowers, furnish forth the customary Easter output of colored booklets and cards by L. Prang & Co. They are adapted to many tastes and purses.

The recent action of the Congregation at Oxford, and of the Senate at Cambridge, in regard to granting women students B.A. degrees, as a matter of fact leaves the whole question of degrees for women *in statu quo*. At Cambridge there was no opposition to the resolution providing for a syndicate to inquire into the whole subject, the opposition having gathered its forces to defeat the second "grace," nominating the syndicate, which was rejected by only 186 votes to 171, and this on the score that some of the members were too closely identified with Girton and Newnham Colleges. At Oxford a more reactionary spirit prevailed: the various resolutions about degrees, diplomas, and certificates were rejected one after another, and resolution No. 5 (framed by the opponents of any recognition of residence or the complete course of study for women), providing for a diploma for any and every examination, was lost by only the narrow majority of 4 (140 to 136). It is not difficult to read between the lines of resolutions, debates, and votes, and to see that both Oxford and Cambridge must, in the near future, grant their degrees to those women whom they have instructed, examined, and endorsed.

It is announced that the "Antigone" of Sophocles will be represented at Athens this year, during the celebration of the Olympic Games. It will be performed in the theatre of Dionysos, at the foot of the Acropolis, where very likely it may have been heard centuries ago. A committee, composed of competent persons, is at present engaged in arranging for the music of the play and the *mise en scène*, as well as in putting the ruined stage and amphitheatre into the best condition possible for the representation. The tragedy will be played by amateurs, students and composers.

The *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, published in Boston by the Society bearing a corresponding name, which was incorporated in 1845, has now entered upon its fiftieth volume. Its indispensableness to all who engage in genealogical research is known to the well informed, and a complete set is a desideratum for every public library. Its indexing began in a day when the art was ill understood and little appreciated, and only within the past half-dozen years has it been competent. It is now proposed to make a consolidated index to the whole series, "comprising subjects, places, and persons," the last arranged by Christian names as well as by surnames. The mere compilation will cost $3,000, but the Society foresees no difficulty in raising the funds for printing if the preparation is secured. It accordingly invites contributions to the sum named in any amount, and will make a beginning when $1,000 has been subscribed. Communications and contributions may be addressed to John Ward Dean, editor of the *Register*, at 18 Somerset Street, Boston.

—The fine edition of the Works of Edgar Allan Poe (Chicago: Stone & Kimball) is now complete in ten volumes, five of tales, four of literary criticism and miscellaneous writings, and one of poems. Mr. Woodberry's notes on the criticisms supply names of periodicals in which the articles appeared, dates, and in fact all the information that can be desired by the most curious. Longfellow's letter, exculpating himself from the charge of plagiarizing Motherwell's ballad, "Bonnie George Campbell," shows that Poe might have gathered from the New England poet some salutary ideas about his own specialty—taste in literary composition. With the notes on the poems a complete variorum is printed for the first time, the editors having thought this desirable, "partly because there is no such illustration in literature of the elaboration of poetry through long-continued and minute verbal processes, and partly because so large a portion of the verse written by Poe perished in those processes." Mr. Stedman's introductions to these two divisions of the Works are as interesting, thoughtful, and discriminating as is that to the Tales. For the preservation of Poe's critical writings apart from those which deal with what it is art's function to express and the technique of expression, he gives perhaps the only very good reason, saying that though they might not have been worth much if produced in any other period, "in consideration of the man and the time—as a part of our literary history—they have a very decided value." After considering the nature and quality of Poe's lyrical genius and the violently different opinions about it expressed by authoritative writers, Mr. Stedman concludes definitely that "a distinctive melody is the element in Poe's verse that first and last has told on every class of readers—a rhythmical effect which, be it of much or little worth, was its author's own; and to add even one constituent to the resources of an art is what few succeed in doing." The bibliography of English and foreign editions is careful, and even the index has not been slighted. If a glimpse of the edition could be wafted to the poet, "within the distant Aidenn," the perfection of its make-up might almost persuade him to forgive the unflattering justice of some of the comments on his life and works.

—In the latest Report (1892-93) of the Commissioner of Education, which has just been distributed, we notice some special features, besides the usual elaborate statistics and compilations. First of all, the whole of Part II., covering 800 pages, is devoted to "Education and the World's Columbian Exposition," under which general heading are given programmes, addresses, papers, and notes on educational matters as far as related to the Exposition; furthermore, reports and comments on the educational exhibits and topics suggested thereby, by several American and foreign authorities. Among the latter, Dr. Emil Hausknecht's article on the American System of Education, and Prof. A. Riedler's on American Technological Schools, are noteworthy as productions of thoroughly competent and strikingly impartial observers. Then, the large number of papers read by eminent librarians before the World's Library Congress are here gathered into a valuable set. Prof. Hinsdale of Ann Arbor contributes to the Report a series of documents relating to earlier American educational history, dealing mainly with legislative and constitutional provisions—a useful compilation, since many of the documents are drawn from sources not easily accessible to students. The Commissioner has also incorporated in his official volumes the now famous Report of the "Committee of Ten," with comments thereon by leading educators (vol. ii., chap. 2); and, considering the prominent place which this educational classic—for so it may well be termed—assigns to the study of geography, it seems appropriate that a special chapter (vol. i., chap. 7) has been devoted to recent developments in the teaching of that subject in the principal European countries. Finally, a complete subject-index to all the papers read before the National Educational Association since its first organization is to be mentioned as a valuable part of this Government publication.

—Gaston Boissier has suffered many things at the hands of a translator of his 'Promenades Archéologiques: Rome et Pompéi.' The original is a pleasant book enough, made up of articles contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* between 1866 and 1876, and revised and corrected here and there in the course of the three or four editions through which it has passed in the French. In spite of the contradictions sure to attend upon such a plan (for example, the excavations of the temple and house of Vesta are described in the first part of the chapter on the Forum, while in the third we are told that the excavations have not yet progressed so far), yet the book has a charm of its own, and, without professing any great depth, it is still both useful and interesting to the general reader. In particular, the chapters on the Catacombs, on Hadrian's villa, and on Ostia contain matter which is not conveniently collected anywhere else in English. A good translation would therefore have been welcome. But Mr. D. H. Fisher's (under the title of 'Rome and Pompeii,' New York: Putnams), in its stiffness and dearth of idiom, reads almost like the effort of a schoolboy. "Tribune

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of harangues" (*tribune aux harangues*), "an ingenious machine to shorten the work of plan-raising" (*une machine ingénieuse pour abréger le travail de la levée des plans*), and "the memory of Caligula is not less lively (*vivant*) on the Palatine"—such things are little more than transliterations. Delphic oracles were nothing to such an utterance as "the right of the jolly fullers was privileged to amuse the people," while Dionysius and the Dioscuri, masquerading under their French names of Denys and Dioscures, awaken the suspicion that Mr. Foster is not over-familiar with ancient literature. This suspicion becomes a conviction when we find *Ancyrae* for *Ancyra*, *virginis* for *virginio*; and *oculos* for *oculis* in Ovid's famous verse—

"Inque oculis facinus barbara mater habet."

And Scylla for Sylla caps the climax—for we are willing to suppose that "parson" is a mere misprint for "person" in the description of the well-known caricature of the Crucifixion.

—From the records of the Roman Inquisition, preserved in Trinity College, Dublin, supplemented by documents in the Venetian archives, Count Ugo Balzani has put together, clearly and instructively, a very curious and interesting story regarding the remains of Fra Paolo, which is printed in the *Rendiconti della R. Accademia dei Lincei*. When Sarpi died, in 1622, the Signoria proposed to honor him with magnificent obsequies and a monument, but his Servite brethren preferred to bury him secretly, fearing, in view of some attempts to steal the body, that it might in future be exposed to indignities. Its place of interment was forgotten until, at the end of a hundred years, in 1722, it was discovered and identified in the course of some repairs to the altar of Our Lady of Sorrows in the Servite convent. Except in the portion of the head wounded in the attempted assassination of Sarpi, it manifested the attribute of sanctity in the absence of decay, and popular devotion was not slow in exhibiting itself; miracles speedily began to multiply as cures were sought through supplications for his suffrage, and votive tablets recording them were hung up. When the body was returned to its coffin it was accompanied with a parchment, signed by the prior and brethren of the convent, attesting its identity and lauding his merits.

—News of this untoward event was conveyed to Rome, where the Inquisition and the Servite General at once exerted themselves to neutralize its dangerous tendencies. The Papal Nuncio, the Inquisitor at Venice, and the Servite Provincial, Padre Bertolli, were ordered to use every influence with the Signoria to put a stop to these uncanonical proceedings, and more especially to have the body transferred to the common sepulture of the brethren, where its identity should be irrecoverably lost. Active correspondence and still more active intrigues were set on foot, which were partially successful. The Signoria gave the Servites to understand that the miraculous cures must cease; the parchment was replaced with a less laudatory inscription on paper, and the coffin was securely fastened with locks, of which the keys were retained by the authorities. A woman named Gabrielli, who had been cured by Sarpi's intercession, was induced, through her Carmelite confessor, to withdraw a votive tablet which she had suspended. Politic deference to Rome led the magistracy to yield thus far, but it steadfastly refused to undergo the humiliation of treating with indignity the corpse of the great citizen who had incurred the undying hostility of the Curia by his defence of the sovereignty of the Republic. In this it was firm, and, when the Provincial Bertolli made himself too objectionable by his persistent intrigues to effect it, he received a peremptory order to leave Venice. In communicating this to his General, he sought to enhance the merits of his persecution by the unhappy device of forging a letter of condolence to himself from the secretary of the Supreme Tribunal. A rumor of this got out, the Government arrested him in Padua, and, on his confessing the forgery, condemned him to five years' imprisonment "in uno de' quattro cameroti all' oscuro." Venetian dungeons were not salubrious; he was released after three years, broken in health and fortune, to get scanty relief from the Holy See, which did not care at the moment to arouse the susceptibilities of the Republic.

DODGE'S 'GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.'

Gustavus Adolphus: A History of the Art of War from its revival after the Middle Ages to the end of the Spanish Succession War, with a detailed account of the Campaigns of the great Swede, and of the most famous Campaigns of Turenne, Condé, Eugene, and Marlborough. With 237 illustrations in charts, plans of battle, armor, etc. By Theodore Ayrault Dodge, Bt.-Lieut.-Col., U. S. A., retired, etc., etc. [Great Captains.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. 864.

THE 'Gustavus Adolphus' is the fourth in the important series of military memoirs from Colonel Dodge's pen. Each has been a welcome contribution to military history in English dress. The last is not least in the series, for a satisfactory connected treatment of the period outlined in the title-page has not been easily within reach of the English reader. Half the volume is devoted to Gustavus; and after the death of the Swedish King in the battle of Lützen, there follows a briefer narrative of the remaining campaigns of the Thirty Years' War and of the latter half of the seventeenth and the first decade of the eighteenth century.

It is more or less an arbitrary selection which limits the number of great captains to six. Some of the forgotten names of all ages may be quite as worthy of the distinction as Gustavus, and among those of his own century who are made subordinate in rank to Gustavus, it is fairly debatable whether Turenne and Marlborough were not quite as great generals as the Swede. The passion for classification is a universal human trait, of every age and clime. The sacred numbers were known before Pythagoras. Trinities are found in every department of nature. We group things in sevens because there are seven days in the week, or in dozens or half-dozens on the pattern of the signs of the zodiac or the number of the holy apostles. There is something of sophism, or at least of question-begging, in every such selection of a group.

It is noticeable, also, that each of the selected half-dozen is a sovereign ruler, except Hannibal; and his distant separation from Carthage made his case very like that of an independent prince waging war on his own account. This means more than at first meets the eye. Turenne's greatness was in spite of being often thwarted by Mazarin and Louvois, as Marlborough's was often clipped by the vetoes of the Dutch Deputies. The King-General, like Gustavus, or Frederick, or Napoleon, was "The State" in Louis the Fourteenth's sense, and his military plans ruled the State policy instead of being subordinated to it. To compare Turenne to Gustavus in any satisfactory way, we must make full allowance for this subordination to the civil power, and estimate his accomplishment with careful consideration of the limitations on his power and his means. Did he show as much resource and ability in view of these limitations? is the question. The problem is not easy to solve, but, as we study his action and his thought, his executive energy and courage, with his aims and ideas, we get to feeling that Turenne was a leader one would love to follow with an enthusiastic confidence to the full as great as could be felt for Gustavus; and it is very much so with Marlborough also.

Colonel Dodge is of the opinion that Prince Eugene has been belittled by English writers in his association with Marlborough. It may be so, and in that case a judicial criticism of the actual offenders would have historical value. To carry weight, however, the criticism must be really judicial. The Colonel says: "It is because we English-speaking peoples slur over the deeds of all but our own heroes that we are wont to make Marlborough the only General of his day" (p. 711), and while he says also that "all nations suffer from want of perspective in gauging their own military history," he adds, "but we Anglo-Saxons are almost the worst offenders." Our reading of military history does not bring us to the conclusion here stated, even in the case used as an illustration—that of Waterloo. It would seem, rather, that whoever reads the French, German, and English histories, although they will agree that there is a good deal of human nature in men of all nations, will also conclude that there is no specially bad eminence for the "Anglo-Saxon." But that discussion would take us too far afield. Colonel Dodge's remarks are apropos of his estimate of Marlborough's strategy in marching from the Low Countries to join Eugene on the Danube and fight the battle of Blenheim. He says:

"It is quite inaccurate to call Marlborough's unopposed march an unheard-of enterprise. . . . The bald fact is that Marlborough marched to the Danube because, as all the military world knew, he was needed there; but he does not even appear to have had any immediate strategic objective. He was only, like the true soldier he was, marching to the sound of the guns. In common with the others, he saw that the allied cause could be best helped on the Danube, because the French were most seriously threatening this section."

This extract bristles with evidence that, in his advocacy of Prince Eugene, the author strangely misjudges Marlborough's strategy, and "suffers from want of perspective." Historians of repute do not generally speak of Marlborough's march as "an unheard-of enterprise," but they call it a very brilliant piece of strategy, which proved him to be a general of the larger kind and not merely a "battle-captain." He could have had plenty of work nearer his camp. In the Palatinate and in Alsace he could have found enemies for the seeking; but he chose to give them the slip and make a flank march past them, half across Europe, to reach decisive results instead of partial ones.

But it was "unopposed"! So are all strategic marches proper. Was Napoleon opposed in his march from Boulogne to Ulm, or over the Alps to Marengo? The strategy in its very essence *consists* in the wise transfer of an

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army "unopposed" to the decisive and advantageous terrain of battle which the general has chosen in advance. If he fought his way there, it would lose the name as well as the character of a strategic movement. As Jomini well states the principle: "Il est un principe essentiel dont il ne faut jamais s'écarter à la guerre: c'est de marcher au point stratégique décisif avant de combattre, et de n'engager l'affaire que quand on est parvenu à s'en rendre maître." (*Hist. des guerres de la Rév.*, L. III., ch. x.).

Again, Marlborough marched "because, as all the military world knew, he was needed there": he saw this "in common with the others." Then why did not the others meet him on the way, when the French had sixty thousand men along the Rhine to his thirty thousand? It is rare that the warmth of advocacy so blinds an author that he contradicts what he has said on the preceding page; but in his zeal to belittle Marlborough Col. Dodge has done this, unless the French were not in "the military world." He had just said:

"Becoming aware of his advance, the French *seemed to lose their heads;* they grew fearful for their Alsatian fortresses, particularly Landau, and quickly concentrated here from the Netherlands, the Moselle, and the Middle Rhine all the troops of Villeroi, Coigny, and Tallard, nearly sixty thousand in the aggregate, to check Marlborough, *whose intention they could not divine.*"

The words we have italicised tell the story. Marlborough's strategy was the splendid success "the military world" has always taken it to be, and he marched from Coblentz up the Rhine to the Neckar and thence over the watershed into the Danube valley "unopposed." That was no small part of his glory. The victory of Blenheim consummated it.

Col. Dodge knows all this as well as anybody, but he is suffering momentarily from the psychological effects of warm advocacy of Eugene, and these disturb his vision as to Marlborough. This becomes still more plain if we compare his treatment of the two generals in their respective campaigns of 1705. The outline of Eugene's campaign was this: He was ordered to Italy with 28,000 men, to cooperate with the Duke of Savoy, who was with difficulty holding the French, under Marshal Vendôme, at bay at Turin. The latter had a large army scattered in garrisons, so that he took the field against Eugene with inferior numbers, often with less than half. He blocked the way against Eugene on the west side of Lake Garda, between the mountains and the lake, and held him there for a month. Leaving a subordinate in command, Vendôme went about other business. Eugene turns the left of the forces in his front, and marches to Brescia and on to Romanengo. This brought Vendôme back, who stopped Eugene's progress. The latter did not offer battle, but resorted to manœuvring. Vendôme out-manœuvred him, checking him at every turn. On the 10th of August Eugene stole away by a night march, hoping to cross the upper Adda and approach Turin that way. Vendôme overtook him and again barred the way with 9,000 men. Eugene stole back, hoping to crush a detachment Vendôme had left at Cassano, but the latter foiled him again and faced him in a position difficult of approach. Eugene attacked with more than double numbers, but was repulsed and himself wounded in a bloody combat. For two months now the armies remained face to face, when Eugene tried another flank march, was again checked, and Vendôme captured Soncino and its garrison under his nose. The Prince now gave it up, and early in November started for winter quarters near Mantua. Vendôme again headed him, and forced him back to the west side of Lake Garda where he began in the spring.

Col. Dodge's comments on this are all apologetic. He concludes that "Eugene had done well for the Duke of Savoy. He had kept Vendôme so busy that he could not besiege Turin; and while he had not been able to join his ally, he had accomplished the spirit of his task if not the letter."

Let us turn now to Marlborough's campaign of the same season in the Netherlands. By the plan agreed upon among the allies, Marlborough and the Prince of Baden were to have operated together from the line of the Moselle and Saar. The forces, by the fault of the Governments, were not forthcoming by midsummer, and Marlborough was called back to meet a vigorous advance of the French army under Villeroi, who had brilliantly taken the initiative there, capturing Huy by assault and besieging the citadel of Liège. On his approach the French raised the siege and withdrew within the entrenched lines of the Méhaigne, which, according to the theories of those days, were regarded as nearly impregnable. Marlborough manœuvred to mislead Villeroi as to his point of attack, succeeded, and carried the lines by a brilliant assault at Léau. The French fell back behind the River Dyle. Marlborough planned an attack there, and opened with preliminary success, when the Dutch commanders flatly refused to go on. He manœuvred Villeroi back to Waterloo, and had issued his orders for attack when the Dutch Deputies interposed their veto.

Nothing can be plainer than that Marlborough was master of the situation, and performed beyond criticism everything devolving upon a general, but was thwarted by the civil authorities, who had a veto upon his operations. But how does his treatment by our author compare with that of Eugene? It must be said that it is studied depreciation. We are told:

"This campaign must be pronounced a failure. Though it is true that the Duke was not to blame for his lack of support, and had many things to contend against, yet these are the same conditions which neutralized the best efforts of many another general of his era. And though, as is so often asserted, it is true that Marlborough never lost a battle or failed to take a place he laid siege to, it is also true that, from one or another cause, he conducted as many barren campaigns as any of the other generals whom we place in the same rank with himself."

This is not judicial. Contrasted with the apologies for Eugene's campaign of the same year, the bias is too evident. It is intimated, but not asserted, that this was a "barren campaign" from some lack of generalship on Marlborough's part. Nothing could well be further from the fact. There is also a strong suggestion without assertion that the lack of support from the civil authorities was a more or less doubtful apology for deficiencies of his own. The detailed evidence in the English authorities would make it impossible for any intelligent critic to assert this openly. Every military student has a warm side for Prince Eugene, but it is doing him an ill service to seek to make him Marlborough's equal by pooh poohing the latter's generalship.

We have commented on what is almost the only blemish in a large book, full of most interesting and clear narrative of military campaigns. The task Col. Dodge has already accomplished in his four fine volumes might well be a life-work for an industrious man. The present one is an advance upon earlier ones in the system of map illustration. A general chart of central Europe is folded at the back of the book, while outline sketch maps of each campaign are found in the text, with still more detailed plans of battles numerously interspersed. These are uniform in style and artistically neat, adding very greatly to the ease and comfort with which the reader follows the chain of events.

When so much valuable material is given, it is almost ungracious to criticise the composition, and yet there is an impression of haste, if not of occasional carelessness, which detracts a little from the weight the book should have. In these days of stenographers and type-writers revision is necessary to prevent the impression that rapid composition may mean ill-considered substance. It is a little startling to find an event located "way beyond the Isar." The use of the singular form "victual" instead of "victuals" is plainly intentional, but does not seem an improvement on the established usage. "To collect victual," "hard up for victual," "depôts of victual," are phrases that jar on the ear. For a general term, "food" is ready for use, with its half-dozen synonyms in single words or phrases.

GERMAN AND ENGLISH COMMERCE IN ELIZABETH'S TIME.

Hamburg und England im Zeitalter der Koenigin Elisabeth. Von Dr. Richard Ehrenberg. Jena: Gustav Fischer. 1896. 8vo, pp. viii, 362.

THIS learned monograph, while addressed to specialists, contains much to interest the general public. The body of it gives a detailed account of the devious methods by which the city of Hamburg, in the second half of the sixteenth century, endeavored to secure the benefits of trade with England while avoiding an open breach with the other cities of the Hanseatic League, which were, at the same time, engaged in a bitter struggle with the English Government. The introduction consists of a graphic recital of the various causes which enabled England to wrest the supremacy of commerce from Germany, the most important of these causes being the energy and boldness of English statesmen, combined with the lack of unity among the Germans.

The commercial ascendancy which England has enjoyed for now more than three centuries is so familiar a fact that most people will learn with surprise that at the beginning of the modern era Germany surpassed England not only in culture, but also in population, in wealth, and in commerce. The reports of the Venetian ambassadors—the principal authority for the period—are unanimous in stating that at the end of the sixteenth century the population of Germany was twice as dense as that of England. The population of England and Wales was estimated at two millions and a half, which would make its density about equal to that of European Russia of to-day, not including Poland and Finland. In the matter of cash capital Germany was in like manner superior. The richest English merchants were estimated to be worth from $250,000 to $300,000, while German firms possessing that amount were considered as being in the second rank. As far back as 1546 the great German house of the Fuggers possessed a fortune of more than four millions of dollars, as appears from their account-books, still in existence. Up to the outbreak of the troubles

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in the Netherlands, the English Crown had to place its loans in Antwerp, there not being wealth enough in England. The German merchants, on the other hand, controlled so much surplus capital that for a long course of years they supplied the sinews of war not only to their own Emperor but to his enemies, the kings of France, as well as to most of the European potentates, including the rulers of England.

The standard of living was much higher in Germany than in England, and there was greater luxury in dress and more comfort in habitation. In agriculture, too, Germany was more advanced; the only agricultural industry in which England excelled was sheep-raising, and that was promoted by an extensive enclosure of commons accompanied by wholesale evictions of farmers. Still greater was the preponderance of Germany in mining. Henry VIII. made repeated attempts to induce German operators to come to England and develop its mineral wealth. It was not till the time of Elizabeth that these efforts resulted in the formation of a company of Augsburg merchants with whom were associated a number of English capitalists headed by two of Elizabeth's greatest statesmen, William Cecil and Lord Leicester. It was from the imported German mechanics that the English learned how to conduct the iron industry profitably. In 1528 a German merchant was appointed by the King as "principal surveyor and master of all mines in England and Ireland." In 1560 Thomas Gresham induced an association of German merchants to undertake the urgently needed reform of the English coinage.

Germany was, at that time, in as great a degree as England is to-day, the land of machines and inventions. John Owen, an English Latin poet, published epigrams in 1612 in which he satirized the Germans as being highly skilled in pursuits and inventions which required manual expertness rather than in such as called for acuteness of intellect. This calumny elicited a refutation from a German doctor, who extolled the power and wealth of Germany, and instanced as German inventions of a higher character the Roman Empire, gunpowder, the art of printing, the reform of religion, the medicines of Theophrastus Paracelsus, and the mysteries of the Rosicrucians.

Among the many branches of manufacture in which Germany surpassed England was the cotton industry, which did not exist at all in England down to the time of Elizabeth. What were known as cotton goods were really light-weight woollens. Cotton goods were largely exported from Germany to England, and it was at a later period that they were imitated at Bolton and Manchester and were long known under the name of fustians. It is true that England did a large export business in woollen goods; but English cloths and kerseys were only partly finished products, and had to be finished and dyed abroad, in spite of the great efforts made by the Government to foster the industry. From statistics prepared for Sir William Cecil it appears that in the year 1564-65 the total exports from England amounted to less than £1,100,000, of which more than four-fifths consisted of woollen cloths. German exports were much more varied. The most important class was that of metals and metal goods, especially copper, brass, and brass wire, iron and steel, together with a great variety of tools and implements. Without going too far into particulars, it will suffice to say that down to the middle of the sixteenth century Germany was far ahead of England along the whole line of economic development. Further, such trade as England had was to a great extent in the hands of foreigners; that is to say, foreigners did forty-two per cent. of the cloth export, fifty-four per cent. of the export of skins, twenty-two per cent. of the importation of wines, etc. The only branch entirely in English hands was the export of wool.

That England succeeded in wresting the supremacy from Germany Dr. Ehrenberg considers principally due to three causes: (1) the energetic and skilful activity of the English Government; (2) the growing technical and commercial capacity of the English people; (3) the geographical situation of England; but by far the most potent of these was the first. Germany, on the other hand, owed everything (1) to its great natural advantages, and (2) to the industry and dexterity of the middle class of the population. During the middle ages the kings and princes of Europe sacrificed the material welfare of their subjects in their struggles for political power; the cities strove for greater liberties and became the refuge of industry and commerce. If the cities of Germany were more successful in this endeavor than those of England, it was because the German citizen had reached a higher stage of culture, and partly because the princes of Germany were even more incapable than the kings of England of pursuing a wise commercial policy. It is to the free German cities and their union in the Hanseatic League that the commercial preponderance of Germany must be ascribed.

The accession of the house of Tudor at the close of the long wars of the Roses marked the turning point. The Tudors did so much for England because their policy was dictated by the wishes and interests of the nation, which recognized them as its born leaders and revered them with sentiments which are but imperfectly expressed by the word "loyalty." The power of the Crown reached its highest point. Its financial position was strengthened by its confiscation of church property, and, later on, by the readiness of the city of London to guarantee the loans which the Government placed among capitalists abroad. In their foreign policy the Tudors did not aim, like their predecessors and the princes of the Continent, at increase of territory and population, but rather attempted to procure advantageous treaties for the trade and industry of their people. Through long-continued and bitterly waged struggles with the protectionists of the Netherlands, they secured for English cloths the world-market of Antwerp. While in the middle of the fifteenth century England exported mostly coarse cloths and imported the finer grades from the Netherlands, and shipped its surplus stock of wool there to be worked up, the situation was completely reversed by the end of the sixteenth century. England still got a few coarse cloths from the Continent, but exported immensely of the finer sorts, and required so much wool for its manufacturing that it had to import quantities of it from abroad.

It would lead us too far to follow the author in his exposition of the unfailing vigilance bestowed by the Tudor "citizen kings" on the commercial progress of their subjects. He points out, among many other things, as illustrating the influence of merchants in the government, that Thomas Cromwell, Prime Minister under Henry VIII., was in his youth a merchant, while Sir Thomas Gresham, Cecil's right hand, was a merchant all his life. Concerning the important Guild of the Merchant Adventurers there are many interesting details. Some of their regulations still survive in commercial usages of the present day, in the constitutions of trades-unions, in the rules of the New York Stock Exchange. Readers interested in such inquiries will derive much profit from Dr. Ehrenberg's book; such as do not know German will find them treated in Professor Ashley's 'Introduction to English Economic History and Theory.'

THE KING'S PEACE.

The King's Peace: An Historical Sketch of the English Law Courts. By F. A. Inderwick. [Social England Series, edited by Kenelm D. Cotes.] Macmillan & Co. 1895.

THE history of the English law courts, beginning with the *Curia Regis* and ending with the Supreme Court of Judicature, covers a period of eight centuries. Notwithstanding all the researches of scholars, our notions of Anglo-Saxon procedure are mainly conjectural. As Mr. Inderwick says: "If A owed B fifty pence, a trustworthy account of the precise course of procedure to be adopted by B to recover his money cannot be given." Anglo-Saxon law was mainly unwritten and customary law, administered by ecclesiastics, and when we speak to day of the common law being unwritten, it is because there once was a period when the great body of it rested in oral tradition handed down from father to son. This fact may explain, in part at least, the divergence between what Mr. Inderwick calls the lawyers' view of the English courts and that of "the philosophers," or, in other words, of the modern students of the Anglo-Saxon period. The lawyers' view—that taken by Coke and the fathers of our system—is usually summed up in the phrase that the King is "the fountain of justice." The philosophers, on the other hand (or some of them), insist that he was merely an overlord; whose decrees might be overridden by the freemen of the county court. Now, whatever view may be held as to the position of the Anglo-Saxon kings, the important question for us is what was the position of the King after the Norman conquest; and that he then became the source from which justice flowed, is shown by the fact that the courts were established by him. Every single important court of original jurisdiction of which we have any accurate knowledge, from that of the chancellor to that of the justice of the peace, is of royal origin. The courts which became established throughout England after the Conquest were the King's courts. The peace which they established was the King's peace, and in process of time these courts supplanted the old gemotes of the Saxons.

On the other hand, justice is older even than the Conquest, and unquestionably the new courts introduced and developed by William and his successors took many of the principles of justice as established locally throughout England and administered them. In other words, the Norman King introduced a new judicial machinery, but not new principles of common right; the ancient common law of Alfred survived and was perpetuated by the very machinery which was destined to blot out that of the Saxon courts. That the King was in the habit of allowing his decrees to be overridden by the freemen of the county court seems very unlikely; but that the King, sitting as a judge at Westminster, might lay down a rule for the disposition of a matter of private right, while at the distance of a day's journey a local custom might prescribe the exact opposite, is not only highly probable, but entirely in accord with everything that we know about our early

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jurisprudence. The very notion of uniform law over a wide extent of territory was a novelty, and it is in great measure to the Norman kings that we owe it. This view of the matter seems to be borne out by the recent researches of Messrs. Pollock and Maitland. Mr. Inderwick treats the point as still open, but says that, for himself, he holds to the view of the lawyers.

The discussion of this point suggests another which writers on the history of the law frequently overlook, and that is that at no time during the whole 800 years has the law been a reasoned body of jurisprudence. If we take the law of any century as a test—even that of our own—we shall find that, side by side with principles based on reason and utility, are rules which owe their origin to custom, to superstition, and to accident, to say nothing of others, imbedded in the law for centuries, the explanation of the meaning of which has been completely lost in the lapse of time. When we hear that one T., tried for and acquitted of the murder of Mary A., has an appeal of battle brought against him by the girl's brother in the King's Bench, and that all the judges order a battle to be fought in their presence, but that, the appellant crying craven, judgment is again given in favor of T., we are carried back to the days of Ashby de la Zouche and Richard I.; but all this actually happened in 1818, and it was when George III. was King that the aid of Parliament had to be invoked to change the law. Even to-day the imputation of unchastity to a woman will not, by the common law, sustain an action of slander, and judges are constrained to enforce the rule while deploring its existence, and confessing themselves unable to explain its introduction. Vice-versa, in the most primitive period we are continually coming across proof that our ancestors applied rational rules just as we do, though side by side with them we find practices and customs founded upon the grossest superstition. At p. 19 Mr. Inderwick gives some examples of ancient oaths in civil cases. In an action for what we should call breach of warranty of the soundness of a horse, the plaintiff swears, "In the name of Almighty God, thou didst engage to me sound and clean that which thou soldest to me, and full security against afterclaims on the witness of N., who was then with us two." N. then makes oath to the fact for which he is called to vouch. Nothing could be more modern or rational than this; it is exactly the kind of proof that we should ourselves resort to if the art of writing were suddenly lost. Yet with our ancestors and their judges this was merely one kind of proof. Another, equally good, in criminal cases, was the oath of the accused, supported by that of his friends that they believed his oath; another the ordeal by water, the probative effect of sinking being to establish innocence—of floating, guilt (p. 21). Facts like these perpetually warn us against assuming that logical analysis has ever explained or will ever finally explain the law as a whole.

Mr. Inderwick's volume brings out in an interesting way the continuity of judicial administration in England from the time of the Confessor, and the strictly professional character of the bar, historically. The serjeant, for instance, was the King's servant-at-law, as assistant of the *Court* in the administration of justice, owing duty at once to the client and to the judge. This fact, which is the key to many of the riddles of professional ethics, is a sufficient answer to Lord Brougham's remarkable rhodomontade on the subject of its being the first duty of a lawyer to forget every obligation in the world except that to his client. The ancient professional character of the bar is at the bottom of the old and sound rule forbidding lawyers to take cases on contingent fees, and not to solicit employment—rules entirely broken down in this community, to its own great loss.

A history of the English courts brings up so many interesting points that it is impossible in a brief notice to do justice to a volume like Mr. Inderwick's. 'The King's Peace' is not literally an alternative title, because one or two ecclesiastical jurisdictions are included, while on the other hand the very important appellate jurisdiction of the House of Lords is not treated at all. A chapter on the obsolete Courts of the Forest possesses much curious interest, and the subject of judicial costume furnishes a topic for several pages, which, in view of the fact that we have begun to go back to costume, even at the corner of Eighteenth Street and Fifth Avenue, is worth the attention of attorneys and counsellors. How many people are aware, one wonders, that the professional costume of England to-day includes the "bands of the Commonwealth" and the head-dress of the Restoration, which have no more to do with the traditional legal costume than the ruffs of Elizabeth or the lace collars of Charles I. (p. 205)—or that, by a very perversity of conservatism, the head-dress now the characteristic of the advocate and the judge was in the seventeenth century worn alike by kings and courtiers, by clergymen and by soldiers, by Jeffreys on the bench and by Titus Oates in the dock? In conclusion it may afford some consolation to the professional reader to know that, bad as legal business is to-day, it was so far worse in the time of Edward VI. that Westminster Hall was in part converted into a market; while during the reign of Mary the Common Pleas had but one serjeant and the Queen's Bench but one counsellor—a desertion of the courts which is said to have been due to the same causes which led to the remarkable spectacle of learned gentlemen appearing in court to argue, it may be, some such matter as a demurrer or a plea in bar, in plate armor—a costume sternly indicative of the underlying principle that the King's peace must be preserved, even if it had to be fought for.

Greenland Icefields and Life in the North Atlantic; with a new discussion of the causes of the Ice Age. By G. Frederick Wright and Warren Upham. Appletons. 1896. 8vo, pp. xvi, 407. Illustrated.

Handbook of Arctic Discoveries. By A. W. Greely. [Columbian Knowledge Series No. 3.] Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1896. Small 8vo, pp. x, 257, 11 maps, 1 portrait.

THE larger of these two volumes, 'Greenland Icefields,' contains material of three kinds, which may be respectively summarized as a description, physical and geographic, of Greenland and its surroundings; an account of the Esquimaux; and contributions to the foundations and theory of glacial geology. To the first belong chapters i.-v. and vii.-ix.; chapter x. is devoted to the Greenland Esquimaux, who are curiously designated as of the "North Atlantic," an ocean few of them have ever set eyes upon; the remainder of the work is occupied with glacial theories and geology. The account of Greenland is of course far inferior to that which has been given by Rink, whose 'Greenland' is copiously drawn upon for data; yet, as a popular account, it is sufficiently full and accurate to convey a tolerably satisfactory idea of the country and its conditions. This has been frequently done before, and the present account presents nothing novel in the way of treatment, but includes a number of good "process" pictures. The chapter on the natives is superficial regarded as ethnology, and seems to have been inserted from a sense of duty rather than for any other reason. It is proper, we suppose, that a book on Greenland should have a chapter on the natives. It is extremely difficult for a casual traveller to say anything new about them, and hardly possible for him to say old things as well as they have been said already. As every new book appeals to a somewhat different circle of readers, Prof. Wright's account of them may serve a useful purpose in spite of its mediocrity.

When he gets upon the ground of glacial geology, a subject to which his contributions are well known, there is an immediate change for the better both in interest and in grasp. This part of the book comprises an account of the exploration of the inland ice, a comparison of the present and Pleistocene ice sheets, a discussion of Pleistocene changes of level around the North Atlantic basin, and three chapters (in which we trace the coöperation of Mr. Upham) on the causes and stages of the ice age, with a concluding summary. We do not discover anything new in the way of fact or theory—quite the contrary—but the summary is excellent and readable, though the standpoint of its authors differs from that of other geologists, in matters principally of detail. In brief, the present writers regard the ice age as due to elevation of the boreal lands and coincident changes of ocean currents, boreal humidity and temperature. They consider the glacial period as continuous, with local or minor oscillations in the extent of the ice sheet. Other geologists differ chiefly, at present, in the extent and duration they ascribe to these oscillations and in their estimates of the elevation concerned. This is not the occasion for a critical review of the general topic, but we may call attention to one point in which more precision would have been advisable. The reader who is not a geologist would be likely to suppose, from what is said, that the period when the boreal lands were covered with forests of a warm, temperate flora immediately preceded the glacial period. As is well known, the Oligocene flora had been extinct for ages, and the whole period of the Miocene and Pliocene intervened between the time of the forests and that of the ice cap. There is no evidence of any Pliocene forests in the arctic region.

In all these discussions the painful iteration of such phrases as "it seems," "it would appear," "it is probable," sufficiently indicates the disproportion between the observed facts and the hypotheses erected upon them. In any condensation, such as is here presented, the hypothetical element is even more conspicuous than usual, for obvious reasons. Bearing this in mind, the reader may obtain from the present volume a very fair idea of the different solutions proposed and of the problems concerned. Many years must pass before the painstaking collection of facts can reach a point where certainty in more than the principal outlines shall be assured. There is good reason to hope that the difficulties will not prove insurmountable.

The latest addition to the Columbian series of handbooks, by Gen. A. W. Greely, condenses the history of arctic exploration into convenient compass for ready reference. More than 50,000 pages of original literature have been gleaned for facts, and the author believes

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that no important addition to arctic geography is unreferred to. While the scope of the volume is not intended to include scientific research, yet the more important investigations are noted, and a bibliography at the end of each chapter indicates the sources whence may be had further information, in the form either of narratives of adventure or of original research. The chapters discuss the subject topically, not chronologically, beginning with early northwest voyages previous to 1570, and continuing with accounts of the exploration of Nova Zembla, the northeast passage, Spitzbergen, Bering Straits, the northwest passage by sea and land, Franklin's last voyage, the Franklin search expeditions by land and sea, North Polar voyages, the islands of the Siberian Sea, Smith Sound and Robeson Channel, Franz Josef Land, the international circumpolar stations, and Greenland, concluding with a chapter on the literature and an excellent index.

In examining the book we have been surprised to find how completely Gen. Greely has succeeded in covering the field in so small a volume, and also, in spite of the extreme condensation, how well the ease and interest of the narrative have been maintained. Under the conditions laid down for the handbook it would have been not unnatural if the text had become dry in its epitomizing, and bibliographic rather than descriptive. This danger has been skilfully avoided, and the result is, what the title implies, a convenient handbook, suitable for reference by the busy man and not distasteful to the inquirer of greater leisure. In all such compilations the question constantly recurs what to retain or to omit, and probably no two authors would come to precisely the same conclusion. Bearing this in mind, we cordially congratulate the author on the success with which his task has been performed, and the editor on having added so creditable a volume to his series.

From the Black Sea through Persia and India. By Edwin Lord Weeks. Harpers.

We have to thank Mr. Weeks for an interesting and entertaining work which has already seen the light in the form of magazine articles. In company with the late Theodore Child, he started on horseback from Trebizond to cross to India. Although Mr. Child died of cholera in Persia, his companion pushed on to Bushire on the Persian Gulf, from which he took the steamer to Kurrachee.

The first part of his book is made up of a connected account of his travels; but after his arrival in India, where he was on better known ground, the author wisely gives us merely disconnected chapters on a variety of subjects. Even if at times the structure of his sentences is not perfect, he writes decidedly well, for he can be vivid as well as amusing, and what he says not only is worth saying, but is said in such a way as to hold our attention. Here is a description of a landscape in Persia:

"Far beyond the plain, tufted with bunches of dry yellow herbage, gilded by the setting sun, this great plateau rises above us at a distance impossible to estimate in the clear atmosphere; its surface broken up into little hillocks, like the waves of a petrified sea, each crest tipped with scarlet from the glowing west, and each long shadow correspondingly violet; and beyond this again rises another and still higher country of purple mountains, and through the gaps of their serrated sky-lines other and more distant ranges may be discerned faint and far away. Looking into the west as the sun sinks, range after range becomes visible, each less purple and more enveloped in golden haze."

The illustrations, too, are excellent, reminding us that the author is first and foremost an artist—a fact we might otherwise overlook, though his appreciations are certainly artistic enough. This does not interfere with the soundness of his judgment or the keenness of his practical observation in various matters. Thus he shows himself remarkably unprejudiced in his treatment of social or political questions. Here are two instances: "Whatever arguments may be brought forward, justly or unjustly, against the utility of foreign missions in general, there can be no shadow of doubt as to the beneficent results of their work in Persia. During the recent epidemic at Tabreez, the medical department of the American mission (then under the direction of Miss Bradford) did noble work." And again: "Mr. Rabino, the active head of the Imperial Bank of Persia, says, in a letter from Teheran, 'I enclose you various letters and reports from the American Presbyterian missionaries, for whose courageous and devoted labors I, an Englishman and a Catholic, can find no words to express my admiration. Their hospital was positively the only organization for the help of this terribly visited city." To supplement his statement it is hardly necessary to add that "these modern Templars have had no incentive in the shape of pecuniary gain, no stimulus in the guise of social success, and not even the poor reward of publicity. Their names will never be inscribed in the Court Gazette of any local four hundred; and the press of their own country, occupied with the conduct and bearing of its social leaders, the presence of royalty, and other matters of vital importance, has no space to chronicle deeds which, if performed by another race and another age, would have been held worthy of undying fame."

Compare with the foregoing the following:

"Wherever a medical officer reported on the condition of his men just returned from active service in Burmah or elsewhere, it appeared that the best soldiers, morally and physically, those who were always exempt from such maladies as dysentery, fever, cholera, and rheumatism, were the opium-eaters; they were able to go longer without food or stimulants, and to do more work. The testimony of physicians, both European and native, was almost invariably in favor of the drug when used moderately in the simple form known to native consumers. Surgeon-General Sir William Moore said 'he had often smoked opium, and really did not see where the wickedness and immorality came in. As a matter of fact, one might see more wickedness and immorality in a London gin-shop in half an hour even on a Sunday night than in an opium-shop during a whole year.' It has been found that opium is cheaper than wine or spirits, less detrimental to the system, and just the right agent to stimulate the indolent Oriental nature, as well as to counteract the weakening effects of a vegetable diet and scarcity of food. Many a poor 'Ryot' who can hardly pull himself together for the want of proper nourishment, is enabled by its aid to do a good day's work, while at the same time it serves him as a specific against the maladies resulting from unhealthy surroundings. . . . While scientists, philosophers, and empirics in Europe have been experimenting for ages to find the Elixir of Life, these simple Orientals have contented themselves with producing, by homœopathic doses of opium, effects analogous to those hoped for from the discovery of Dr. Brown-Séquard; and, if they have not succeeded in renewing their youth, have certainly managed to make it last longer."

We note finally, as prophetic of coming troubles, in Erzerum in July, 1892: "It seems that all Armenians are regarded with suspicion just now on account of a plot against the Turkish authority, recently discovered, in which many of their leading men were implicated."

The Ancestry of John Whitney, who, with his wife Elinor and sons John, Richard, Nathaniel, Thomas, and Jonathan, emigrated from London, England, in the year 1635, and settled in Watertown, Massachusetts; the first of the name in America, and the one from whom a great majority of the Whitneys now living in the United States are descended. By Henry Melville, A.M., LL.B., of the City of New York. New York: Printed at the De Vinne Press. 1896. Pp. 295.

Thomas Halsey of Hertfordshire, England, and Southampton, Long Island, 1591-1679, with his American Descendants to the Eighth and Ninth Generations. By Jacob Lafayette Halsey and Edmund Drake Halsey. With an Introduction by Francis Whiting Halsey. Morristown, N. J. 1895. Pp. 550.

The Whitney genealogy is one of a class of which we have few specimens in American literature, as it is the history for centuries of a family in England, one of whose branches has taken root in this country. It will be of absorbing interest to the numerous descendants of the Watertown settler, but will find few other readers. We are all interested in the lives of prominent actors in public affairs, either at home or abroad, but the minor agents are too numerous. The first and most important question discussed in this book is the parentage of the emigrant John Whitney. From the lists of passengers for New England, first published by the late James Savage, and often reprinted, it appears that in April, 1635, in the *Elizabeth and Anne* of London, embarked John Whitney, aged thirty-five, Ellen Whitney, aged thirty; John, Richard, Nathaniel, Thomas, and Jonathan Whitney, aged respectively 11, 9, 8, 6, and 1. This list covers twenty-three names, all duly licensed, but without a note of their residences. In a subsequent list of three names by the same vessel the persons brought certificates from the minister at Westminster, England. It seems by this book that John Whitney, son of Thomas W. of Westminster, was apprenticed in 1607 to William Pring, merchant tailor, was made free in 1614; took an apprentice, Robert Whitney (probably his brother), in 1624, and made Robert free in 1632. Again, the record of Isleworth, near London, shows that John and Ellen Whitney had children, Mary, b. 1619; John, b 1621; Richard, b. 1623. Moreover, in the parish of St. Mary, Aldermary, London, John Whitney had a child Mary, buried in 1626, and a son Thomas, baptized December, 1627. John Whitney also had his son John entered in 1631 in Merchant Taylors' School, the name standing on the catalogue until 1635.

These, we believe, are all the facts obtainable as to the emigrant—the identity of the names of the father, mother, two sons, John and Richard, and possibly a third, Thomas, and their order. The ages in the list of emigrants do not agree with the baptisms, but it is a well-known fact that such discrepancies are almost the rule, whether from carelessness or design. It may also be conceded that John Whitney's record in Watertown is entirely consistent with the theory that he was the John of London, a freeman of the Merchant Taylors' Company, but it is somewhat strange that no evidence is given that he was ever termed "tailor" in his new home. The identification is probable, but by no means conclusive; and the pedigree is, therefore, much less satisfactory than that of some of our emigrants.

The English pedigree is better sustained. It is clear that John Whitney, the apprentice of 1607, was a son of Thomas W. of Westminster

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(see p. 217), who married Mary Bray in 1583, and had nine children, including John, baptized in 1592, and Robert, baptized in 1605. In 1637 administration was granted on his estate, but John is not mentioned, though the younger sons—Francis and Robert—were. This is entirely natural if John was then in New England. The pedigree quoted on p. 209 shows that Thomas Whitney of Westminster was son of Robert, the third son of Sir Robert Whitney of Whitney. The main line of Whitney is traced clearly to A.D. 1242, taking its name from the parish of Whitney, Co. Hereford, on the banks of the river Wye. It was an old and noted county family, flourishing in the direct male line until 1670, when Sir Thomas W. died. He was first cousin, once removed, to Thomas W. of Westminster, but his estates, not being entailed, passed to his sisters. It appears (see p. 210) that John W. of Westminster, son of Robert, evidently the merchant tailor, claimed to be heir male to the whole family, a title of honor, but not necessarily an heir to the land. He may well have been ignorant of any cousins in New England.

The English pedigree is well prepared from sources easily accessible, somewhat overloaded with general quotations. It is evidently padded to make a book of a size to correspond with the elegance of the printing and the illustrations; but it is padding of good quality and is creditable to the compiler. Though, as already stated, the proofs of the affiliation are not of the first quality, they are plausible, even probable, and are far better than those given in many pedigrees unquestioned in England.

The second book on our list, the Halsey genealogy, is simply one on the familiar American pattern, giving the descendants of Thomas Halsey of Lynn, Mass., in 1637, and of Southampton, L. I., in 1640, who died about 1677. It is a substantial record, well prepared in respect to dates, but disfigured by a system of numbering, "devised by the Rev. John E. Todd, which he has kindly permitted to be used." We are not familiar with Mr. Todd's antiquarian work, but it is a pity that his ingenuity took this form. Why will genealogists abandon the old, tried, and approved methods for useless experiments? We have also a coat-of-arms and an attempt to identify the emigrant—both failures. It seems that there is a family of the name in Hertfordshire, Eng., the present head being Thomas F. Halsey, M.P. His ancestor, William Halsey, in 1633 received a grant of arms for him and his brother James Halsey and their descendants. They were sons of Robert Halsey of Great Gaddesdon Parsonage, and they had brothers Duncomb (who died before 1633) and Thomas, baptized January, 1591-2. This Thomas was living in Naples in 1621, as appears by a letter preserved in his English home. Without the slightest evidence that we can discover in this book, he is assumed to be the Thomas who was in Lynn, Mass., sixteen years later. In this book is a facsimile of the letter written by Thomas Halsey at Naples, 1621, and of the signatures of the Long Island man in 1647, 1648, and 1677. The last three are alike, and are totally dissimilar from the Naples one, except that both are of the style of the early part of the seventeenth century. It would take strong positive evidence to overcome this unintentional proof that the two men were not the same.

It is a pity to see so much creditable work, such a solid contribution to family history, disfigured by an ill-judged introduction and by such an unwarranted scheme of arrangement. It cannot be too often repeated that industry, zeal, and wealth combined may accumulate the materials of a genealogy, but all may be rendered nearly worthless by a neglect of the established rules for arranging them.

The Structure and Development of Mosses and Ferns. By Douglas H. Campbell, Ph.D., Professor of Botany in the Leland Stanford Junior University. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

UNDER the term "moss," in popular nomenclature, are included a great many sorts of delicate plants which to botanists are not mosses at all. For example, the long gray or black tresses which hang from the trees at our Far South, and which are everywhere called "moss," are pathetically depauperate members of the pineapple family. Anybody who cares to do so, can convince himself of this by comparing, even superficially, the flowers of the Southern "gray moss" with the young blossoms of its nobler relative. Algæ, or seaweeds, are generally called sea-mosses, and the lichens of our woods are seldom known as anything but mosses or tree-mosses.

What, then, is a true moss? In the first place, it shares with the plants which, in popular parlance, are improperly denominated mosses, a certain delicacy of structure and diminutive size. But from algæ and lichens true mosses differ in the possession of leaves, although, in at least one well-known instance, these leaves are rudimentary. Mosses grow from a microscopic body, known as a spore, which on germination develops into a network of more or less complexity. By and by, at some point of the network, there is produced a bud which may bear a curious resemblance to the flower of the higher plants. In some instances the likeness is so close that bryologists, the specialists who devote their attention to mosses, are wont to speak of this open bud as a flower. Moreover, this "flower" contains reproductive organs which are analogous to but not strictly homologous with the reproductive organs in flowers; it has certain parts to be fertilized, and others which are to provide, at the proper time, the fertilizing agent. The result of such impregnation is the production of a capsule filled with spores, each and every one of which is capable of starting a new moss plant. In this too hasty outline we have not referred to the singular alternation of generations which constitutes one of the most marked features of the group. Such recondite matters are clearly explained in many works, but in few works any more clearly than in the excellent treatise by Prof. Campbell. The life-history, as it is the fashion to call it, of mosses and their immediate allies, has been given by him in a very intelligible manner, adapted to the wants of the serious student. Moreover, everything has been brought well up to date; and although there are a few instances of what seems improper perspective, nothing in the whole section devoted to mosses is misleading.

There are two facts respecting the distribution of mosses which are of singular interest, namely, the wide dispersion of species and the caprice which determines their homes. The minuteness and lightness of the dry spores fit them to be the carriers of life over vast distances in the upper air; oceans presenting, in fact, but slight obstacles to their dissemination. Hence we find the same species distributed over immense areas and encroaching on widely separated continents. Perhaps one of these days, when more attention is given to very minute differences between different individuals of the same species, it may turn out that, after effecting a safe landing on a new continent, plants yield to slight but nevertheless decided climatal differences. But if these climatal differences have really begun to act on these hardy emigrants, and have really initiated natural selection, the work has been thus far exceedingly slight and practically unappreciable.

Few sorts of plants display as much determination mingled with capricious whimsicality in the choice of a home as these minute mosses. Some dwell only on the mortar between bricks of a wall, while others choose decomposing bones, and others still, clean clay soil. In a few cases the habitat may be safely used by the beginner as an aid in the determination of the species.

It is in the sections given to ferns and their kindred that the author appears to the best advantage. For a good many years he has made the development of ferns a special study, and with substantial results. It is known in a general way even to the general public that the story of a fern's life is peculiarly interesting. It is widely known, too, that the mystery of its reproduction has been fully cleared up. Even elementary students of botany know that the spore of the fern does not produce at first a fern-plant, or anything that might be mistaken for a fern-plant, but, rather, a transitory film-like structure, of minute size, on the earthward side of which are developed the reproductive organs. By the interaction of these there arises on the film a diminutive bud, which speedily unfolds in one way or another into what people call a fern. Meanwhile in most cases the transient film, on which this work of reproduction has taken place, perishes, and disappears. Ferns have, therefore, from their earliest state, much to interest botanists and all who care to study living things.

The unfolding of the leaves, or, more properly, the fronds, of ferns, is one of the strangest developments in nature. For the most part they uncoil in graceful curves, keeping for a while the shape of a crozier, and then extending in curves of greater amplitude and more tender beauty. Even in the giant ferns of the tropics this gracefulness of outline is never wholly lost. From the tree ferns of the equatorial belt to the shrinking ferns of our colder climate is a long step, but in the structure of the one we can trace the other, and by parity of reasoning we can take the far longer step back to the first great coal period. The record of development of ferns and their kindred, although broken here and there almost beyond deciphering, shows us that the devious pathway from the lower to the higher forms of life has been presumably without interruption of catastrophe. This is perhaps as well shown in the elder and latter ferns as anywhere else. It is this hint of steady although uneven progress from lower to the higher, given by these plants, that has rendered them so highly interesting to the biologist. From start to finish they are full of interest. Prof. Campbell has gathered together all necessary information respecting this surprising history, and although not casting it in a form specially attractive to the general reader, but fitted rather for the student of ferns, presents the whole in its due proportions. Even the latest results obtained in respect to the higher allies of the ferns, namely, the clubmosses, are given in detail and correctly. The work is a credit to American science.

The Episcopate in America: Sketches, Biographical and Bibliographical, of the Bishops of the American Church, with a Preliminary Essay on the Historic Episcopate, and Docu-

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mentary Annals of the Introduction of the Anglican Line of Succession into America. By William Stevens Perry, Bishop of Iowa, and Historiographer of the American Church. New York: The Christian Literature Co. 1895. Pp. lxviii, 378.

THE title of this handsome volume explains its character, but omits to mention that each sketch of a Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States of America (for that is what is meant by "the American Church") is preceded by his portrait, which adds greatly to the value of the volume. It is surprising that Bishop Perry was able to collect representations of all the Protestant Episcopal Bishops in this country, from Bishop Seabury to Bishop Millspaugh, and he is to be congratulated on the result of his efforts. He states that no other collection known is complete.

The introductory essay traces (1) the origin of "the historic episcopate" from the Apostles' times, chiefly after Lightfoot; (2) its introduction into this country after the Revolutionary War—with facsimiles of some valuable historical documents; (3) its introduction into British North America—with a list of bishops; (4) the rise of the Methodist superintendency or episcopacy (which, however, has no connection with "the historic episcopate"), together with a list of the "bishops" of the Methodist Episcopal Church North from Coke and Asbury on, but those of the Methodist Episcopal Church South are singularly omitted; (5) the episcopate of the Roman Catholic communion in the United States, from the non-canonical consecration of Archbishop Carroll on, with a list of the archdioceses and dioceses, archbishops and bishops, of that branch of the Catholic Church; and (6) a brief account of the foreign churches receiving the episcopate from the American Church—that is, the churches in Hayti and Mexico—with sketches of Bishops Holly and Riley, the latter of whom resigned his jurisdiction, at the request of the House of Bishops, in 1884.

As there are sketches of 176 American bishops, each one must necessarily be brief, but it gives succinctly the main particulars in the ecclesiastical life of its subject. In reading some of these we have noticed a few omissions, inaccuracies, and misprints, which can easily be corrected. Under Bishop Pinkney, his 'Life' of his uncle, William Pinkney, the celebrated lawyer (New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1853), is omitted; also his essay on 'Webster and Pinkney,' in reply to Harvey (privately printed, 1878); and his poems, such as his 'Songs for the Seasons' (1864), and others mentioned in Dr. Hutton's 'Life of Bishop Pinkney.' The portrait of the Bishop here given is not as good as the one prefixed to Dr. Hutton's 'Life.' Under Bishop Whittle, the division of the diocese of Virginia is given as 1893, and under Bishop Randolph, as 1894, both dates being incorrect; it was made in 1892. Bishop Nelson's name is "Kinloch," not "Kinlock." Under Bishop Newton, "Smith" should be "South." Mention of the service in the Confederate army of Bishops R. W. B. Elliott, Harris, and Galleher is omitted, although it is duly made in the case of Bishops Polk, Dudley, Penick, Peterkin, Johnston, Capers, and Newton. The term "bishop-coadjutor" is an anachronism as used by Bishop Perry. It was, as he well knows, first legally authorized by the last General Convention, which met in Minneapolis in October, 1895. The authorized term up to that date was "assistant bishop," and some would have preferred to see that term retained. To conclude our fault-finding, we object decidedly to the term "priested," which is no word.

Taken as a whole, the work will be welcomed by Episcopalians, to whom it is of special interest, and it adds one more to the long list of historical works for which the church is already indebted to the author.

Westminster. By Sir Walter Besant. With 130 illustrations by William Patten and others. Frederick A. Stokes Co.

THIS book has been made out of a number of papers in the *Pall Mall Magazine;* and it is an example of the sort of thing we are getting deluged with nowadays. The public likes pretty pictures, and modern mechanical processes have cheapened their production; and, as the public also likes to imagine it is being instructed, books about "historic cities" and the like are tolerably sure of a market if only they are handsomely bound, commended by a well-known name on the title-page, and plentifully "illustrated." The volume before us is certainly a charming picture-book; but about Sir Walter Besant's share in it it is impossible to feel much satisfaction. He undoubtedly knows a great deal about London and Westminster—few men are so intimately acquainted with the older portions of the metropolis; and the drawing-room reader will carry away some information from the pages of this book, especially if he reads only half-a-dozen at a time. But the style is intolerably diffuse, and the sentiment is that of Wardour Street.

Westminster, to begin with, is not so important as London, and the great theme of the Abbey Sir Walter does not undertake. Yet he wants to make a book as big, externally, as his much more solid work on London; and then there are all these pictures to be kept apart by letterpress! And so he pads with both hands. Sometimes he quotes a few pages—like the nine from Maitland describing the Evil May Day of 1517, which most of his readers will suppose to be a contemporary account. More usually he opens the floodgates of enumerative gush of the cheap picturesque variety. Thus, apropos of the "uproarious life" outside the Abbey: "There were taverns. . . . There was the clashing of weapons: there were the profane oaths of the soldiers"; there was this and there was that, for half a page. Or again: "Everywhere there were stately halls, lofty roofs, tourelles with rich carving," and then follow some forty other articles from the repertoire of the scene-painter and costumier. The trick is played time after time. To one who knows his Scott (not to say G. P. R. James or Harrison Ainsworth), and has a Stow at hand, it is singularly easy. But even this is scarcely more irritating than the long conversations and monologues Sir Walter puts into the mouths of his real or imaginary characters. Perhaps they are thought to enliven the book: to those who know any one period at all well the happy-go-lucky archaisms of the modern man of letters are only distressing. Let us add that, though in a series of "pictures" it may not be unpardonable to jump about from century to century, to and fro, the result upon most readers will undoubtedly be to strengthen the deep-rooted belief that the men of the Middle Ages all lived at the same time. It is fortunate that in his historical novels Sir Walter Besant has to remain in one period.

If would hardly be worth while to criticise this book if it came from a less honored hand. It will do no positive harm—except perhaps that it may do something to lower the average standard of literary performance. But we who in our college days chuckled over 'The Monks of Thelema,' and have been stirred in later years by 'All Sorts and Conditions of Men'; we who admire the authors' champion, and rejoiced when the English Government did honor to letters in his person—feel that a book like 'Westminster' is poor work. We cannot help hoping that Sir Walter himself is not so blinded by success and flattery as to escape the prick of conscience.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, Prof. M. B. Some Representative Poets of the Nineteenth Century: A Syllabus of University Extension Lectures. San Francisco: William Doxey.
Balzac, H. de. La Grande Bretêche, and Other Stories. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Baring-Gould, S. The Broom-Squire. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Bates, Arlo. Poems of John Keats. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Bercy, Paul. Key to Short Selections for Translating English into French. W. R. Jenkins. 75c.
Bill Nye's Sparks. F. T. Neely.
Bodington, O. E. Kelly's French Law of Marriage. London: Stevens & Sons; New York: Baker, Voorhis & Co. $3.50.
Bottone, S. R. The Dynamo: How Made and How Used. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 90c.
Brainerd, T. H. Robert Atterbury: A Study of Love and Life. Cassell. 50c.
Briggs, H. M. By Tangled Paths: Stray Leaves from Nature's Byeways. *F. Warne & Co.* $1.25.
Broglie, Duke de. An Ambassador of the Vanquished: Viscount Gontaut-Biron's Mission to Berlin, 1871-1877. *Macmillan.* $3.
Brother and Sister: A Memoir and the Letters of Ernest and Henriette Renan. Macmillan. $2.25.
Brown, Prof. E. W. An Introductory Treatise on the Lunar Theory. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.75.
Buchanan, Robert, and Murray, Henry. The Charlatan. F. T. Neely. 50c.
Burroughs, John. A Bunch of Herbs, and Other Papers. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
Cable, G. W. Madame Delphine. Scribners. 75c.
Carleton, William. Traits and Stories of the Irish Peasantry. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Cassell's Complete Pocket-Guide to Europe. 1896. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.50.
Castlemon, Harry. The House-Boat Boys. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co. $1.25.
Chirol, Valentine. The Far Eastern Question. Macmillan. $3.50.
Cook, Prof. A. S. Paradise Lost, Books I. and II. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 35c.
Cowles, Prof. W. L. The Adelphoe of Terence. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 25c.
Davis, M. C. The Refiner's Fire. James Pott & Co.
Dawson, Sir J. W. Eden Lost and Won. F. H. Revell Co. $1.25.
Fletcher, W. I., and Bowker, R. R. The Annual Literary Index, 1895. New York: *Publishers' Weekly.*
Ford, P. L. The Writings of Thomas Jefferson. Vol. VII. 1795-1801. Putnams.
Garbe, Richard. The Redemption of the Brahman. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. 25c.
Good Reading about Many Books. Mostly by their Authors. Second Year. London: T. F. Unwin.
Goodhart, Briscoe. History of the Independent London Virginia Rangers. Washington: McGill & Wallace.
Graham, G., and R. B. Father Archangel of Scotland, and Other Essays. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Gregg, Rev. David. The Testimony of the Land to the Book. 2d ed. New York: E. B. Treat. 35c.
Grenfell, W. T. Vikings of To-day; or, Life and Medical Work among the Fishermen of Labrador. F. H. Revell Co. $1.25.
Hardy, Thomas. A Laodicean. Harpers. $1.50.
Harnack, Adolf. Christianity and History. London: A. & C. Black.
Harrison, Mrs. Burton. A Daughter of the South, and Shorter Stories. Cassell. 50c
Harvie-Brown, J. A., and Buckley, T. E. A Fauna of the Moray Basin. 2 vols. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
King, R. M. School Interests and Duties. American Book Co. $1.
Laire, Comte M. H. de. Mémoires du Duc de Persigny. Paris: Plon; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Macknight, Thomas. Ulster as It Is; or, Twenty-eight Years' Experience as an Irish Editor. 2 vols. Macmillan. $6.50.
Mallock, W. H. Classes and Masses; or, Wealth, Wages and Welfare in the United Kingdom. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
North, Sir Thomas. Plutarch's Lives. Vols V. and VI. [Tudor Translations.] London: David Nutt.
Nye and Riley's Wit and Humor. F. T. Neely.
Peacock, T. L. Cyril Grange. Macmillan. $1.25.
Renner, A. L. Sarah Bernhardt, Artist and Woman. New York: A. Blanck.
Shurtleff, E. W. Heaven in Easter. Easter in Heaven. Boston: L. Prang & Co.
Spofford, Harriet P. A Master Spirit. Scribners. 75c.
Stephen, Leslie. Social Rights and Duties: Addresses to Ethical Societies. 2 vols. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Studies in Classical Philology. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. $1.50.
Swift, Jonathan. Gulliver's Travels. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 40c.
Tarbell, Ida M., and Davis, J. McC. The Early Life of Abraham Lincoln. S. S. McClure. $1.
The Massacre of the Innocents, and Other Tales. By Belgian Writers. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Viardot, Louis. Reasons for Unbelief. New York: Peter Eckler.
Welton, J. A Manual of Logic. Vol. II. London: W. B. Clive.
Williamson, J. J. Mosby's Rangers. New York: R. B. Kenyon. $3.50.
Wolf, Alice S. A House of Cards. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Woodward, B. D. Hugo's Quatrevingt-Treize. W. R. Jenkins. $1.25.

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